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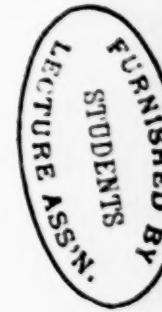
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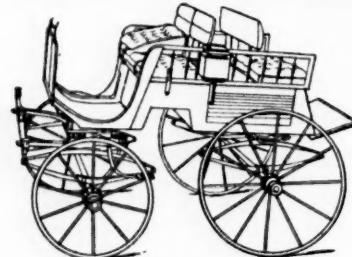
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 28, 1891.

The Week.

It is not likely that the managers of either of the great political parties will give much serious thought henceforth to the "People's Party," which was formally organized in Cincinnati on Thursday of last week. Probably the strongest impression which the gathering has made upon professional political observers has been one of surprise that the various new party movements in the West and South were able to make no better showing in a national convention. The roll-call of the Convention by States showed that only 32 of the 44 States were represented, and that of the 1,418 delegates present, nearly a third, 411, were from Kansas, and nearly a fourth, 317, were from Ohio. The combined representatives from Kansas, Illinois, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, and Minnesota, numbered 1,147, leaving only 271 for all the remainder of the country, so that it was really a convention of the dissatisfied and discontented elements of the population of eight Western States, all except one of which, Indiana, have hitherto been considered safely Republican in Presidential elections. Only ten Southern States were represented at all, and of their 113 delegates, 59 were from Kentucky, 26 from Texas, and 13 from West Virginia, making 98 from three States, and leaving only 15 to be divided among the remaining seven. If either party can find any cause for uneasiness here it is the Republican, but there is much less to disturb Republican calculations than many observers have supposed. No new leaders were brought to the front in the convention, but the two moving spirits were Ignatius Donnelly of Minnesota and Gen. Weaver of Iowa, both conspicuous in the Greenback and other cheap-money campaigns of the past, and both as thoroughly discredited "leaders" as could be found in the whole country. Weaver, it will be remembered by students of political almanacs, was the Greenback candidate for the Presidency in 1880, polling in the whole country 307,740 votes. He did not seriously menace the fortunes of either party in that campaign, and there is little reason to regard him as more of a "power" now, with his old ally, Donnelly, and his new ally, Peffer of Kansas, than he was then.

The declaration of principles put forward by the Convention is no more original and captivating than its leading spirits. It is the old Greenback platform, with modifications and variations to suit the latest developments of the cheap-money mania. It calls for "plenty of money in the pockets of the people," with no limitation either as to amount or quality. It endorses the absurd sub-treasury scheme in the advocacy of which even such strong

defenders of the "people's interests" as "Jerry" Simpson are beginning to falter. There is no more popular magnetism in this familiar demand for more money for everybody, and in this cry for "death to the money power," now than there was when Gen. Weaver ran for the Presidency with them as "battle-cries" in 1880, or when Gen. Butler, assisted by the New York *Sun*, ran with them in 1884, and polled only a little more than half as many votes as Weaver had received. Every issue which represented a definite following was left out of the platform. There is no mention of the tariff in it, and no allusion to the prohibition question, two subjects upon which convictions of some kind would have appealed to large bodies of voters.

There was an interesting discussion of the immigration problem at last week's session of the Conference of Charities and Correction in Indianapolis. It was introduced by a report of the Committee on the subject prepared by S. C. Wrightington of the Massachusetts Board of Lunacy and Charity. This report took ground in favor of severe restrictions upon immigration in future, and laid stress upon the falling off in the character of foreigners who have come to this country of late years, physically, intellectually, and morally, as compared with earlier periods in our history. This opinion, however, was stoutly contested by Mr. Cadwalader C. Biddle of Philadelphia, who is connected with the Pennsylvania Board of Charities. He declared that the immigrants arriving at Philadelphia now are of a better class than those who came a few years ago, and maintained that the cost of the paupers and other defective classes coming from abroad is not so great as has been estimated, as charitable institutions must be built and sustained for the native population. Mr. A. O. Wright of Wisconsin said that his State had the largest foreign population of any in the Union—two-thirds of those over twenty-one years of age being of foreign birth. That population is German, Scandinavian, Irish, etc., but they furnish no more crime, pauperism, and insanity than do the natives. They are good citizens and are a valuable population. Some of the counties are wholly settled by these people, and although they are opposed to prohibition, he, as a temperance man, was forced to admit that drunkenness is no greater in such counties than in those where prohibition is favored by a majority. A Colorado delegate enlarged upon the evils of the contract-labor system, and declared that it was not consistent for the Union League Club, whose members, as members of corporations, had caused such laborers to be brought to this country by tens of thousands, now to deplore the evils of unrestricted immigration. Herbert A. Forrest of Michigan, himself a native of a foreign country, told of a colony from Europe which oc-

cupies an entire township in Michigan. The township is one of the richest in the State, he said; there is never a dollar of delinquent tax against it; it has not a pauper or a drunkard; yet none of the people use the English language, and they could not have got consular certificates because they were fleeing from a tyrannous government which would not have let them come to America.

There was no approach to agreement as to the proper methods of restriction among those who believed that something ought to be done. Several speakers advocated some form of supervision by our consuls in foreign countries. But Mr. Everett of Washington, who was connected with the American Legation at Berlin for seven years, pointed out many difficulties in the way of such supervision, and did not think the plan feasible. Father Bessonies of Indianapolis took the same view. The people, he said, flock into the towns where they are to embark, by thousands, from distant places, and the consuls could not know or find out their character or fitness for emigration. He thought that if there were Government agents at the ports of entry in this country to direct the immigrants where to go and how to reach places where they are needed, much pauperism and crime would be averted. The discussion only served to show the wide divergencies of opinion as to the seriousness of the evil among those who have studied the subject, and the utter lack of agreement as to how to overcome the evil among those who are most impressed with its seriousness.

The President of the American Screw Company has made in the Providence *Telegram* a remarkable statement concerning the effect of the drawback provisions of the McKinley tariff law. This company, which ranks as the first of its kind in this country, has been forced by the onerous conditions of the drawback provisions to establish a branch manufactory at Leeds, England, and proposes to establish another branch in Germany, in order to supply the foreign demand for its goods. "We shall," says the President, "introduce the American system of work into our Leeds factory, with Americans for the heads of the various departments, but with English factory hands." This is the way in which the McKinley tariff helps American labor, and protects it from the "ruthless competition of the pauper labor of Europe." This decision of the American Screw Company furnishes a practical demonstration of the truth of the statements which Mr. David A. Wells made in the *Evening Post* of April 20 concerning the worthlessness of the drawback provisions, and shows that President Harrison and Mr. McKinley, in asserting to the contrary, evidently did not know what they were talking about.

It will be remembered that McKinley and his associates declared, when protest was made against more than doubling the tax on foreign tin, that the proposed new tax would not go into effect before July 1, 1891, and predicted that before that date American tin plate would be selling more cheaply than foreign, and that in the meantime there would be no advance in the price of foreign tin. July 1 is nearly here, and if there is any American tin plate in the market to be bought in quantity at any price, nobody has been able to find it. In the meantime the price of foreign tin has gone up so that the amount of the increased tax has to be paid to the foreign manufacturers, and the American workingman's tin dinner-pail costs him proportionately more than it did before the McKinley Bill became a law. The Buffalo manufacturer, like the American Screw Company, is, as we learn from the Buffalo *Courier*, forced, in order to do any export business, to build a factory in Canada, to be manned by Canadian labor, in order to compete with Canadian producers of dinner-pails on their own ground. In this way, the American manufacturer will be able to sell dinner-pails to Canadian workingmen at a lower price than he can sell them to American workingmen, and the latter will also be deprived of the wages which will be paid for the Canadian output. It will be observed that the Buffalo manufacturer, like the American Screw Company, finds the drawback provisions of the McKinley law of no use whatever.

The attempt to suppress the manufacture of oleomargarine by putting a tax upon it has proved an utter failure. The sales of stamps by the Internal-Revenue Bureau during the four years since the law was passed shows that the industry has grown, despite this attempt on the part of the Government to suppress it. The sales in 1886 aggregated \$407,670; in 1887, \$642,710; in 1888, \$686,674; and in 1889, \$624,499; while thus far, in the ten months of the fiscal year 1891, the aggregate of stamps sold is \$694,944, or more than for the twelve months of any previous year. The fluctuations in the manufacture of oleomargarine are found to follow almost exactly those in the butter market. Thus, during the winter of 1889-90 butter was plentiful and cheap, and as a result the trade in oleomargarine declined heavily, while during the last few months butter has been scarce and high, and the sales of oleomargarine stamps have been very large—\$137,513 during April, as against only \$23,290 in July last.

There has seldom been a grosser abuse of the taxing power than in the act imposing a penalty upon the manufacture of this substitute for butter. Everybody concedes that the Government has a right, and, indeed, is bound, to see that such a substitute is not prejudicial to the public health; but the act in question imposed the tax without any reference to the quality of the product. There is no doubt that pure oleomargarine is healthful, and the Govern-

ment has no more business to put a tax upon a pure substitute for butter than it would have to put such a tax upon butter itself. The act in question was simply a piece of "class legislation," such as the farmers are constantly denouncing, in the interest of those farmers who raise more butter than their families use, and who wanted to force people, many of whom were poor, to pay a higher price for it than they could charge without the interference of the Government. It was as unreasonable and unjust as many of the outbreaks against the introduction of labor-saving machinery, which have always wrought temporary harm to some element in the population at the same time that they brought permanent advantage to the whole community in the long run.

The Republican members of the Pennsylvania Senate have refused to allow a ballot-reform bill to be passed through that body at the present session by adhering to the preposterous measure which they had reported from committee. It is not a ballot-reform bill in any sense of the term, and is a direct contradiction of the bill which passed the lower house some weeks ago. The action of the Senate Republicans is in compliance with orders from Quay and the local Republican bosses, and so patient and long-suffering a Republican organ as the Philadelphia *Press* admits that, in taking the course they have, these Senators are seeking the defeat of all ballot-reform legislation. The *Press* says of them: "They don't even want the bill which they are passing themselves, and, as nobody else wants it, it had much better be defeated outright than passed in its present shape. It is a mockery of ballot reform and an insult to the intelligence of the people. Republican Senators who are supporting this abortion are doing their utmost to dishonor the Republican party." The idea of "dishonoring" a party which submits to Quay's leadership in all things must strike the Senators as a delightful joke.

While there has been a solid basis for the Southern prosperity which has of late years challenged the attention of the nation, unscrupulous speculators have made fortunes for themselves, and cheated thousands of people out of larger and smaller sums, by working up fictitious "booms" in one place and another. The collapse of some of these booms has been so complete as to be laughable to outsiders. Application was made the other day for the appointment of a receiver to take charge of the property of the Cardiff Coal and Iron Company in Cardiff, Tenn. A year ago this company published flaming advertisements of a forthcoming sale of lots in what it was declared would soon be one of the great manufacturing centres of the South, and over \$900,000 worth of lots was sold. Purchasers were assured that the company had \$1,000,000 in its treasury to spend in public improvements during the first year. The year has expired, and the town now consists of a \$50,000 bank, a saloon, and a country store. The Judge granted the ap-

plication, on the ground that the company was insolvent, was fraudulently disposing of property, and was granting fraudulent preferences.

No one who has followed the course of events in the Pension Bureau at Washington since it came under the control of the Harrison Administration can doubt that a portentous scandal has been in preparation there from the moment of "Corp." Tanner's entry into the Commissionership. Gen. Raum took hold of the work at the place where Tanner was forced to drop it, and he is greatly misunderstood if he has not exceeded Tanner in many ways as a sower of seed for a future crop of scandals. The conduct of his son was so bad that it is said that the Attorney-General has ordered the District Attorney to investigate it, but it will be surprising if the public is allowed to see much that the District Attorney discovers. Sooner or later there will have to be an investigation which will investigate to find out, and when it begins to work, the President will be convinced, perhaps, of the folly of trying to prevent scandal in a public office by removing one bad official as soon as he is found out, and putting another bad one in his place.

We expected that our exposure of the garbling done by somebody in Washington, in citing the case of Rose vs. Himely, in the *Tribune* the other day, would call forth something in the nature of excuse or defence, and we foresaw exactly what the defence would be, namely, that the decision in Rose vs. Himely was reversed in the case of Hudson vs. Guestier. But this is no defence at all. It fails to tell us how the decision of the court in the case of Hudson vs. Guestier justifies the production of an extract from a dissenting opinion in Rose vs. Himely as the decision of the court in the latter case. We knew that the decision was reversed in the case of Hudson vs. Guestier, but the young gentleman who gets up Secretary Tracy's authorities for him apparently did not, or he would have cited it in the first instance, instead of exposing himself to the charge of garbling by citing Rose vs. Himely. The only opinion it was permissible to him to quote from the case of Rose vs. Himely as the opinion of the court, was the opinion of Chief Justice Marshall. The only other point in the defence worth notice is the quotation from Hall, justifying "pursuit into the open seas" of a vessel which has committed an infraction of municipal laws. Hall qualifies this in this way:

"It might be added that this can only be done when the pursuit is begun while the vessel is still within the territorial waters, or has only just escaped from them. The reason for the permission seems to be that pursuit under these circumstances is a continuation of an act of jurisdiction which has been begun, or which, but for the accident of immediate escape, would have been begun, within the territory itself, and that it is necessary to permit it in order to enable the territorial jurisdiction to be efficiently exercised." (P. 214)

But "the little Puffendorf" who gets up the

authorities for Secretary Tracy fails to see that this authority does him no good, because our pursuit of the *Itata* did not begin within the territorial waters. It began three days later, and was therefore open to the objections which Hall states on the same page. But if he will not garble or misstate again, we will forgive him this time. Error in opinion is venial, but wilful misquotation is a serious offence.

The attempt of some of the Standing Committees of the Episcopal dioceses to prevent the election of Phillips Brooks to the bishopric of Massachusetts, taken in connection with the attack on Dr. Briggs, seems to indicate that the unwillingness to give high places to eminent men, which has so long been a marked feature of our national politics, is making its way into the ecclesiastical forum also. In England, for a long time, the test of "availability" in candidates for bishoprics to be filled by the Crown has been very much the same as our test of availability for the Presidency. That is, the candidate, in order to have a good chance of nomination, had to be a man who had uttered no decided opinions, had given no offence to parties or sections of parties in theology, and was in all things, including eloquence and piety, remarkable only for avoiding extremes. This, of course, means that it was, as a rule, the obscure and "safe" men who got the bishoprics. But of late years there has been a strong disposition in England to abandon this policy and give the ecclesiastical prizes to men, like the late Archbishop Magee, famous for their eloquence, or their scholarship, or their courage and force of character. It would be very interesting if the American Church were to begin to show fear of talent and eloquence just as the English Church was getting over it, and to shudder and turn pale at the sight of heterodoxy just as the mother Church was beginning to handle it fearlessly and with enlightened curiosity. The chief end of a bishop, as of a church, is, after all, to convince men that the Christian religion furnishes a good rule of life, and in all ages it has been the able rather than the sound men who have been successful in this undertaking. Just now the Church's great difficulty is to get people to listen to the pulpit at all, so that there would be something almost comic in its absurdity in the rejection, as a candidate for a great place, of its most powerful and effective preacher, because some little men in various dioceses are not sure that they agree with him on various little points on which there never has been any general agreement at all.

What we said a few weeks ago was a fair inference as to the reason for existence of the reciprocity treaty with Brazil—namely, that it was a gift by the Provisional Government of that country in return for recognition by the United States—is now asserted to be a fact in a French newspaper published in Rio, the *Brésil Républicain*. The statement is that the treaty was made a con-

dition *sine quod non* by the Washington Administration at the time of recognizing Fonseca, and that this accounts for his putting it through in defiance of public opinion. However this may be, it is clear that the treaty does not gain in popularity in Brazil as the weeks pass by. Especially does the announcement of our proposed treaty with Spain and with other South American Republics make the Brazilians feel doubly foolish in having given away so much for nothing. If sugar from Cuba and Porto Rico, and hides and coffee from all South America, are to be given as favorable treatment as the corresponding products of Brazil, the agreement is too palpably one-sided. But Fonseca proposes to be a law unto himself in this matter and everything else. His recent reorganization of his Cabinet has had the curious result of turning out almost all the Republicans and putting inveterate monarchists in their places. His new Premier is Baron Lucena, who officially insists upon his title, in spite of the prohibition of titles of nobility in the new Constitution. He is said to be at present the dominating personality in Brazilian politics, and to be the man really behind Fonseca in the reactionary policy recently inaugurated. Governors of States have been arbitrarily removed, pending the election of State Legislatures, and other high-handed measures resorted to in order to get officials subservient to the Administration. No one supposes that a monarchist restoration is contemplated, but only that support is sought for the personal rule of the President.

The financial question seems likely now to be the pivot upon which the civil war in Chili would turn, and it would appear that the insurgents are in possession of the longest purses. Balmaceda's agent in London is reported to have met with no success in his effort to place a loan for so small a sum as \$1,500,000. The President's message to Congress, April 20, was telegraphed in full to Europe, it is said at the author's private expense, in order that the flattering account he gave of the progress of the war might have its effect in bolstering up his failing credit with European bankers. In this it was a decided failure, since along with it went an official despatch from the heads of the Provisional Government at Iquique, setting forth the highly questionable legality of any such loan, and calling upon the representatives of the insurgents abroad to give public warning that no such loan would ever be recognized by the Congressional party in case of their final success. On the other hand, the insurrectionary leaders, either by good luck or foresight, early gained control over the great nitrate-producing provinces, and the large revenue thus put within their power has been generously added to by advances from wealthy Chilians. It is this situation of affairs that makes the "Nitrate King" of London believe in their ultimate triumph, and his opinion is certainly given color, just now, by the apparent cessation of serious

fighting, and the settling down of the two parties to a contest of financial endurance.

The unexpected devotion of the Belgrade students to ex-Queen Natalie has turned a prearranged comedy into a deplorable tragedy. The expulsion of Natalie was virtually decreed by the Skupstina several weeks ago, and the determination to carry it into effect was communicated to her by M. Patchitch, the Servian Premier, in a letter in which he "humbly begged her Majesty to be pleased to inform him of her decision." To this Natalie replied, after conferring with M. Garashanin and others of her advisers, that she did not consider the decision of the National Assembly as an order to leave the country, but merely as an expression of a wish; and that she was firmly resolved to remain in Servia, considering that her removal could not possibly be useful either to the interests of the kingdom or to those of the throne. "Should it, however," she added, "be my destiny to have to yield to force, I shall at least have proved to my only child, and perhaps later on to history, that I have left my son not of my own free will." It thus became clear that she had resolved to turn a deaf ear to the counsels of Count Hunyadi, a Hungarian nobleman related to the Obrenovich family, who had gone to Belgrade to persuade her to leave Servia of her own accord, without compelling the Regents to resort to force.

The enthusiasm with which Natalie was received at Semlin in Hungary, where she first sought refuge after leaving Servia, though not unnatural in view of her beauty and personal respectability, lends a further touch to the *bouffé* proceedings which have characterized her expulsion. For Natalie has all along been known as a pliant tool of Russia, and as such her doings were particularly obnoxious to the Government of Austria-Hungary. The statesmen of Vienna and Budapest are likely to take a more prosaic view of her martyrdom, and will adopt measures to prevent the Serbs of Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Croatia from becoming embroiled in the troubles of the kingdom of Servia. Whether Russia will now show her hands more plainly in the game to be played between the families of Obrenovich and Kara-Georgevitch remains to be seen. Personally, there is little to choose between the two dynasties and their representatives, young Alexander of Servia and Peter Kara-Georgevitch. It is easy to imagine what the political and moral training of a boy must be who rules over a country which has ignominiously expelled both his father and his mother, after fraudulent divorce proceedings. Meanwhile, the wretched Milan, who promised to refrain from meddling in Servian politics on the payment of a million francs, appears on the scene in the character of a sage, shakes his wise head over the "unskillful management" of the expulsion, but inclines to the opinion that "there is no danger of a revolution in Servia." As for himself, he has "entirely abandoned politics."

MR. CARLISLE'S EASY LESSON.

THE *Sun* of Friday morning contained a very interesting and suggestive report of an interview between a delegation from the Cincinnati Convention and Senator Carlisle, whom they went to visit at his home in Kentucky. One of the first questions they asked him was, what he thought of their scheme of Government ownership of the railroads and telegraphs. This gave him a chance to inquire about the details, and he used it to great advantage. He asked how the Government was to get possession of them; was it to confiscate them? They acknowledged that this would be unfair, as they are now private property. He then showed that if the Government did not confiscate, it must buy, and that if it paid a fair price to the owners of the property, it would have to raise for the purpose \$14,000,000,000, a sum over four times greater than the debt incurred in the prosecution of the late war, and would have to raise it by taxation.

"Are you ready," he said, "to tax yourselves to raise this money? Then, after you have got the property, are you ready to tax yourselves to operate it, for the Government never yet succeeded in doing business at a profit? Consider another effect: such plan would add perhaps 1,200,000 men and women to the roll of Government employees. How would you ever succeed in turning out of power an administration with such resources at its command? The more corrupt it was, the more difficult it would be to displace it."

This proved a powerful aid to reflection, and brought about a thoughtful silence among the delegates on this branch of their subject. They then took up the well-known topic of the concentration of "the money power in too few hands." He met them on this point by asking how they were going to remedy this evil—by a revolution or by an act of legislature? "Do you propose to say by your legislature that when a man has earned \$100 or \$1,000 or \$10,000 he shall not earn any more?" This again reduced them to silence. In fact, the whole incident more than justifies the suggestions we have often made in these columns as to the good effect of the Socratic method on the current economic delusions if applied to individuals in a private room. It is very difficult to reach the minds of those who are dominated by them through a newspaper article or a speech. Neither of these applies any real pressure to their minds. They let the argument slip by as something perhaps a little puzzling for the moment, but to which they will find an answer presently; but when face to face with an honest questioner who does not rouse their antagonism, and removed from the confusing influences of a great assemblage, they are compelled to dive at once into the recesses of their knowledge-box for an answer, or, in other words, to think the thing out.

Two great changes in the American popular feeling on economic topics Mr. Carlisle's questions forcibly bring home to us. One is the rapid inoculation of the masses, particularly in the West, with the European Continental idea of the Government as an earthly providence—a power separate from the people, and possessing resources of its own available for all sorts of philanthro-

pic schemes. The growth of this idea in this country has been kept down until now, as regards the State and the towns, by the small scale on which they do their work and by the closeness of the taxpayer to the treasury. Every town meeting in New England, for instance, has been to every voter in the town an impressive reminder that the Government and the people are one, and that any man who puts his hand into the public treasury literally puts it into his own pocket. But as the Federal Government has grown in magnitude and power, the distance between it and the voter has increased; it has assumed more and more the appearance of a great being that can regulate industry, abolish poverty, and enrich the poor, and manufacture money by mere act or resolution without drawing on anybody for the expenses. The inclination of the native imagination to take this view has of course been greatly stimulated and aided by the foreign immigrants, who come over with it already in their heads. We know of no way of keeping it down or banishing it so efficacious as direct taxation, as it exists in towns, but this does not seem practicable. If the cost of such measures as the Pension Bill, and, indeed, of all bills not providing for the ordinary expenses of the Government, had to be provided by the direct application of the tax-gatherer, it would be the best kind of popular education. Next to it comes the cornering of craze leaders for private examination, and this can be practised to a greater or less extent.

If, too, the very simple arithmetical process of an imaginary division of the riches of the rich among the whole population were oftener performed, it could not but have a very illuminating effect. We think it would be found, could we get a peep into the brains of those who are most concerned about the concentration of "the money power in too few hands," that what fascinates each of them, in the prospect of a division of the funds of the Vanderbilts and Goulds and Rockefellers, is the notion that he will himself get a slice of the wealth that would make a permanent change in his condition. Were he shown more frequently the exceeding smallness of the dividend which the poor would receive through the distribution of the accumulated wealth of the world, there is hardly a doubt that he would give more of his attention to honest industry and less to political agitation. In no socialistic or semi-socialistic scheme is there any provision made for the accumulation of capital—that is, the saving from this year's products for future use. In our present social organization, this is the special function of the class known as capitalists. They save for the whole community, so that when it wants to do something besides growing food, it can find resources ready for the purpose. They are highly paid, we admit, but they are not more highly paid than is necessary to secure their services, for their peculiar talent is very scarce.

Another and hardly less important service which they render is finding out, by the experiment known as speculative investments, what the wants of the community really are,

and into what sort of enterprises the public savings had therefore best be put. Hundreds are sacrificed in this work for the one who succeeds, but the fewer the number of those who succeed, the larger their remuneration has to be. To suppose that civilization could be carried on without this class, or that the class could be maintained if robbed every now and then by the Government, or if denied all enjoyment of its money in the shape of luxury and leisure and power, is one of the most absurd of the Socialist chimeras. Of Socialist expectations, too, none is queerer than that rich men should be extraordinarily virtuous, and ashamed of their success, and eager to share with everybody who can prove his poverty. They need restraint by law, just as the poor do, and as all power does in civilized commonwealths. But we may rely upon it that, as somebody said of the Jews, every nation has the kind of rich men it deserves. The poor in a democracy make the rich whatever they are.

SOME BLESSINGS OF INTOLERANCE.

RECENT events in the Presbyterian and Episcopal churches have given occasion to many to bewail threatened departures from that toleration which, historians tell us, it was the great work of the eighteenth century to have broadly and securely established. We are in danger of a "recrudescence of intolerance," we are told. Now, we shall not be accused of favoring the return of the Inquisition, but there are two sides to most questions; toleration has not all the advantages on its side, and intolerance is not without blessings even to those who are its victims. A hint at some of these may reveal some relieving aspects of the pending ecclesiastical controversies.

Certainly toleration tends to diminish men's ardor in the pursuit of the truth. If one opinion is as respectable as another, and all are uncertain, it seems as if the game were not worth the candle. Mr. Maurice, it is true, used to number among his paradoxical views the idea that the only reason and true ground of toleration is a thorough certainty that you are right, and altogether right, and that those who differ from you are wrong, and nothing but wrong. On those terms, he said, you may tolerate opponents; on those terms, and those alone, the Established Church may look upon Dissent with equanimity. But for the rest of the world it is pretty clear that the uncertainty, not the certainty, of truth is the excuse for tolerating different views of it. Parties and sects go on with their strenuous argumentation, of course; but, after all, it comes down to about this, in the end: "These are our views; we hold them with conviction, but if you don't, it's no great matter; we shall still look upon you as a man and a brother; go your way in peace, or, rather, come around to dinner, won't you?" Now, this patronizing toleration must take the edge off the zest which men once seem to have felt in the search for the truth. It discourages thinkers by making them feel that the world will not take them seriously any more. If they do discover

new truth, there is no way of forcing it, or even forcing attention to it, upon an unwilling or careless mind.

The truth is, intolerance furnishes a prime condition of propagating truth, and so an incentive to struggle to attain it, by offering an innovator a vigorous opposition, and making it possible to give the supreme testimony of suffering for conviction's sake. A New England clergyman has been heard to say, in sober earnest and with no little passion in his voice: "I wish I could get an audience to preach to that hated the Gospel. I sometimes long for hearers who would yell out their dissent and defiance; it would be such a relief after my sleekly supercilious congregation, who listen to me with such complete indifference and superior unconcern." Take the case of the assailed professor in Union Seminary. His views are already gaining a resonance which years of tolerated teaching could never have given them. If he is fortunate enough to be put out of his chair on their account, he will leap into an influence greater than that of all the teachers of his department in all the seminaries. If his opponents are wise, they will get him quietly back at his work again, and assure the world that his views are not worth troubling about. That would be the surest way to do what one of them professes to be aiming at, namely, to "squelch" him.

In the case of abstract truth especially, toleration has torn it from its consequences, and so made it more than ever intangible. Without int'erance there is no way of bringing it home to the mind as by a blow on the head. Doctor Servetus never indulged the suspicion, we may be sure, that he was burnt for a theological abstraction. The high mysteries of abstract thought were clothed with such consequences in his age that they could be grasped by the senses almost. To take one view meant comfort and applause; the other involved risk both to goods and life. That made controversy serious and gave truth a handle. Servetus's advanced ideas about the circulation of the blood were no more real to him than his theological views. For the latter, as for the former, he had the evidence of his senses; the severed artery sent out its jets, and the renounced creed burst into flames around the heretic.

Intolerance, too, would never have permitted the immense growth of foolish opinion in the world which has been fostered by our days of toleration. It would have been death to the increasing numbers of charlatans. Intolerance meant the beneficent law of struggle for existence; monstrosities went to the wall, freaks got no foothold; the brains once out, the man died. But now we cherish all sorts of absurd variations of thought, instead of mercifully killing them out of hand. There is nothing like a good persecution to show what convictions are worthy of being suffered for, what thoughts are clear and dignified, and what mere insanity. A man would take the trouble to verify his guesses if he found them leading him to the rack.

Another great blessing to be gained from the intolerance which some are deplored, is

the making of certain moral issues sharp and intelligible. At present no man knows what subscription to the creed of the Presbyterian Church means. The vague terms in which it is couched, and the notorious toleration of radical dissent from important articles of the Confession, have led to an amount of moral shuffling and twisting of conscience which we know to be a source of shame to many in the Presbyterian ministry. They have groaned over the evil, but have not seen how to remove it. Nothing like an old-fashioned trial for heresy to straighten that thing out. It ought to be haled, and we have no doubt it will be, by great numbers of the younger ministry and theological students who are now all in the fog. They may have to abandon their church, or they may feel that they can stay in it, but they will have a clear conscience in either case. All that these years of toleration have brought them is a miserable sense of being in a perilous, because ambiguous, moral position.

THROUGH RAILWAY ROUTES.

THE case of the New York and Northern Railway against the New York and New England Company, decided on May 6 by the Inter-State Commission, is especially important to owners and managers of railways, particularly as it seems at first reading to reverse the principle of the right of a transportation company to choose its connections in forming a through route. The New England Road runs across Connecticut to Brewsters, where a junction is made with the New York and Northern for New York city. For eight years these roads exchanged traffic to and from this city at through rates and proportions satisfactory to both. Two years ago a new line to New York was opened from New England via the Housatonic Railroad and the Sound. Because the same capitalists were interested in the New England and Housatonic Railroads, this latter was made the only New York line by the New York and New England Road, the old exchange of freight with the Northern line at Brewsters being stopped. The Northern Road thereupon appealed to the Inter-State Commission to compel a resumption of the former through route via Brewsters. This the Commission, in an opinion by Chairman Cooley, decides must be done.

The clause of the act to regulate commerce under which the action was brought, says that common carriers shall furnish reasonable and equal facilities in forwarding or receiving traffic to or from their connecting lines, and shall not discriminate between such connecting lines. It is held that the Housatonic and the Northern are both independent and connecting lines, and should be treated alike by the New England Road, since no objection was raised as to the fairness of the old contract when it was declared void, the new arrangement with the Housatonic being preference merely. On the facts of this particular case as given it is proper to say that the Northern Road seems to have been

unfairly treated, and the decision of the Commission ordering the reopening of the through line via Brewsters appears to be a just one.

But the reasoning of Chairman Cooley seems to go further, and to imply that there is some obligation on the part of a railway to exchange traffic on equal terms with all other railways where the physical connections of the properties are equal. If any such doctrine can be construed in any form from the language of the Commission, it is a serious matter. It is acknowledged that no Commission or court now has authority to compel one road to exchange traffic or divide through rates with another, yet if such Commission or court can order the continuance of an arrangement once made, we have taken a long step towards compulsion in any case. It is also true that this power of opening a new route is given to the English Commissioners, and has been exercised by them, but this grew out of the railway situation in Great Britain, where a short road with chartered privileges might, by a consolidation of other roads, find itself cut off from a long-established traffic. Since the language of our Inter-State Act was taken from the English statute with this provision about compulsory through routes left out, it is a fair inference that the omission was intentional. The Lackawanna joins the New York Central at Syracuse; should the latter be compelled to send merchandise shipped from Buffalo to New York over the Lackawanna? Is the Central not in fairness entitled to carry its Buffalo freight to New York all the way over its own lines? If the Pennsylvania receives New York grain at Chicago, should it be ordered to hand the shipments over to the Reading at Philadelphia? Or if these things had once been done, should we compel their continuance?

But it may be said that the decision does not contain such statements; neither does it, yet, whether so intended or not, the wording does not exclude them. In the case of the New England Road, if the Housatonic had been amalgamated with it or if it had had its own line into New York, could it still justly be required to continue exchanging traffic with the Northern at its own expense? Nor could any argument about the previous fairness of the prorating arrangements have any weight in view of the changed conditions, for while it might have been for the benefit of the New England Road at one time to form a through line with the Northern, if there is a unity of interest now with the Housatonic, its business should be allowed to reshape itself. Hence the question of real profit to a carrier in changing its traffic from one connecting line to another is of the first importance. This point seems inadequately treated in Judge Cooley's opinion. He says: "The defendant has an ownership in the terminal company of one-half the stock, which makes it for its interest to shut off the participation of petitioner in the through business. This does not appear to affect at all the legal aspect of the case. If an interest in the line discriminated in favor of can preclude the operation of the prohibitive provisions of

law, the *amount* must be unimportant; 1 per cent. of the stock would be as good for the purpose as 50 per cent. But it is sufficient to say that the statute makes no exception for such a case." This language is very much broader than if Judge Cooley had simply said that the interest in the terminal company was not enough to warrant any discrimination in facilities on the part of the New York and New England in favor of the Housatonic; it seems a fair inference that ownership of one road by another would not justify a refusal to exchange traffic with a third competitive line. Such a principle never will be adopted in the United States, for no branches or extensions of existing roads will hereafter be built if the traffic of the new lines cannot be secured with certainty by the parent systems.

Commissioner Bragg prints an opinion in which he agrees to the conclusion reached in this particular case, but dissents from the reasoning. He says with truth that the Act "forbids a carrier from discriminating against a connecting line" and in favor of another "connecting line," but it does not require a carrier to discriminate *against itself*, by taking its business where it has a line of its own to a given destination and dividing that business with another line that is competitive with it to the same destination." The weakness of the Chairman's opinion seems to be at just this point. We ought not to follow English precedents too closely in railway questions when circumstances are very different. Our American carriers must open cheap through routes for long distances. Our only hope for this is a small profit for a long haul, and this in turn requires close business affiliations, if not actual consolidation, for the roads composing the route. If such long and affiliated or consolidated routes can be broken up and compulsory through lines be formed of two or four disjointed, inharmonious roads, we cannot expect such economic operation as will warrant low rates. If our tariffs were so high as to give a profit to each little link in a long chain, it would be different; the real situation is the reverse of that. We may acknowledge the apparent justice of the Commission's decision as regards the one road, the New York and Northern, while holding the reasoning and principles advanced to support it as essentially unsound for the United States.

THE CENSUS BULLETIN UPON MORTGAGE INDEBTEDNESS.

In that classical report of the proceedings of his surveying party, the lamented John Phoenix bequeathed to the cause of science some practical suggestions which have not always received attention from later investigators, but which, we are glad to see, have been appreciated and adopted by the Superintendent of the present census. It will be remembered that Mr. Phoenix, desiring to ascertain the distance from the city of San Francisco to a neighboring mission, employed a large force of assistants, supplied at Government expense with chronometers and various astronomic

cal and trigonometrical appliances, together with a newly invented pedometer. When the observations and calculations had been completed, however, the results were found to exhibit such extraordinary discrepancies—the individual wearing the pedometer, for instance, having vitiated the record of that instrument, from which much was expected, by dancing for several hours with some miners in a drinking-saloon—that it was thought best to determine the required distance by asking one of the inhabitants about how far he thought it was.

This procedure has been substantially followed by the Superintendent of the Census in his inquiry as to indebtedness. The first step seems to have been to put upon his payroll some 2,500 presumably faithful "workers." The next step, under an act directing him to "collect the statistics of and relating to the recorded indebtedness of private corporations and individuals," was to decide that he would disregard the requirement as to corporations, their indebtedness being "something apart from the life and undertakings of the masses of the people." The problem was still further simplified by excluding liens upon crops, mechanics' liens, judgments by process of law, and chattel mortgages, on the grounds of expense and impracticability. There remained, then, little more than the comparatively simple task of compiling the records of instruments of the nature of real-estate mortgages made by private individuals—a labor which was prosecuted with such industry as to enable the Superintendent to point with pride to the abstracts of 9,000,000 mortgages now on file at Washington.

The sagacity of the Superintendent had enabled him to foresee, as he tells us, that many of these mortgages would represent extinguished indebtedness, and he resisted the suggestion of "various newspapers that the amount of the uncancelled mortgages should be accepted as the amount of the debt in force," upon the ground that this would be so gross an exaggeration as to make his statistics unworthy of confidence. But how was it possible to determine which of the apparently subsisting mortgages were paid and which were not? Here the pregnant suggestions of John Phoenix bore fruit. It was decided to make inquiries of the parties named in some of these mortgages and of "others who had the information" as to the fact of payment, and to assume that their statements would establish a law applicable to the whole country.

These inquiries were accordingly prosecuted in about a hundred different counties, with the result of placing the general principles of mortgage indebtedness upon a new and purely American basis.

As to partial payments, a further application of the Phenixian method was made. "The partial payments that had been made upon many thousands of mortgages were ascertained from savings banks, insurance companies, mortgage companies, trustees of estates, loan and trust companies, and holders of large numbers of mortgages, generally corporations. . . . The leading ob-

ject in this trial was to get economically, and by application to a comparatively few lenders, statistics of partial payments distributed throughout a large number of the counties of the Union, which could not be obtained from private lenders on account of expense and their refusal to impart the information." We should have been inclined to attach some weight to returns made by institutions of the class described, but it has been found that these returns are so completely at variance with those obtained by asking the people of the vicinage that they "must probably be rejected." They are declared to be "valuable," but as the choice must be made between them and the answers given by individuals, the latter are preferred; the "remarkable success of the investigations in the 102 counties, which had not been looked for by statisticians of large experience," being a convincing argument in their favor.

In the Southern and many of the Western States the records do not commonly disclose the actual rates of interest, and many mortgages are for larger amounts than are really loaned. The statement often appears that the loan is made without interest, or a lower rate than the true one is named. The Census Bureau, however, has not allowed itself to be balked by such subterfuges in its determination to fix average rates of interest, and its agents were instructed to inquire what rates were actually paid for loans in all cases where the parties had manifested a disposition to conceal them, and to insert such rates as were thought correct. Where second mortgages were considered by the agents to be for interest and commissions, they have not returned them as principal at all, but have converted them "into additions to the apparent rates of interest borne by the first mortgages." By making use of this elastic method, the determination of average interest rates has been rendered comparatively easy. The silence of mortgages as to the amount of land covered has occasioned no difficulty, the practice being to determine the average area covered by mortgages where the quantity of land was stated, and to write this average into the mortgages that were defective in this respect. It would seem from these investigations that nearly one-half of the land in Iowa and about 15 per cent. of that in Alabama is under mortgage, the average rate of interest paid being not far from 8 per cent. The two States named are the only ones covered by the present bulletin.

The principal criticism to be made upon this method of statistical investigation is that too many people were consulted. John Phoenix asked only one individual, and thus avoided the uncertainty that would have been occasioned by discordant replies. By neglecting this precaution the Superintendent of the Census has arrived at some very questionable results. The apparent debt is greater than the actual debt in various counties by amounts that range from less than 4 per cent. to over 531 per cent. It is almost incredible that such differences should really exist; and if they do, it is a conclusive argument against reasoning from the case of one

county to that of another. To average returns marked by such wide differences is to multiply errors, and we are unable to share the triumphant confidence of the Superintendent that his results do not vary from the truth by 5 per cent.

Nor can we admit that "even if the error should vary from 15 to 20 per cent., the results would still be of incalculable value," unless the word "incalculable" is to be taken in its primitive sense. These results are stated by the Superintendent to consist in attracting attention "to the dangers of these encumbrances, to the enormous burdens in the way of interest, to the alarming extent to which usury is practised, and to the defectiveness of these records in all parts of the country." But we are not informed what these novel dangers are, or what we should do about reducing the rate of interest, or how the heart of the usurer is to be softened, or in what way men are to be induced to have their mortgages cancelled when they pay them, if they do not choose to do so. The true value of such results as these is not indicated by a pile of 9,000,000 abstracts of mortgages at Washington, but by the money received as salaries by horde of office-holders—which of course is a minus quantity so far as the people of the United States are concerned. It is quite probable that these lists of mortgages could have been obtained by application to the county clerks at a tenth of what they have cost, and in the country districts these functionaries could in many cases have given opinions as to the amount of subsisting indebtedness which would probably have been quite as near the truth as the testimony secured.

If the aim of this investigation was to show the average indebtedness of American citizens, it is obvious that it has not been attained. The omission of large classes of indebtedness would of itself vitiate the result. Furthermore, nothing is more common than for the same person to be both a mortgageor and a mortgagee, and no investigation would amount to anything that did not disentangle these relations. The creation of mortgages is but one development of the complicated system of credit under which modern business is carried on. It is seldom an indication of financial distress, but generally a sign of buoyant business. The attempt of the Census Bureau to disregard the statute under which it acts and ascertain actual and not merely recorded indebtedness, is inexcusable. No competent statistician would waste money in so absurd an enterprise. If there was a desire to learn whether the mortgageors of the country were really in danger, and burdened by interest and usury, the evidence of foreclosure decrees would have been relevant and trustworthy. This evidence, however, was deliberately rejected by the census officers, for what reason we cannot say. It will be interesting to learn the conclusions at which they arrive when they complete their labors in this department, but it is to be feared that they will be of a rather speculative character.

THE SOUTHWESTERN LAND COURT.

SANTA FÉ, N. M., May 18, 1891.

The establishment by Congress of a special court for the settlement of grants and land titles of foreign origin, chiefly in the Southwestern Territories, is looked upon by the inhabitants of these Territories as a very important measure. It is confidently hoped that much good will result from the labors of that court.

The duties of its members require considerable erudition. There is not the least doubt that, with the great strides made in the United States in the knowledge of foreign legislation, foreign history, and foreign language, it will be easy to find persons particularly well qualified. The provision of the act excluding citizens of the Territories interested from becoming members of the Land Court is extremely wise. It secures absolute theoretic impartiality. The court may, in this manner, become as thoroughly impartial as a jury of marble monuments would prove to be in a case of divorce. It was also highly judicious to provide that the translator shall not be a resident or native of the land the documents of which he is to render into English. The terms which are sometimes used in those documents have become obsolete, and are at this day only known as provincialisms, limited often to a small territory, and any translator who is not versed in the Spanish of the Southwest is therefore not much exposed to misinterpretation, for the simple reason that, in most cases, he will not be able to interpret the terms in question at all. There is little danger of the minds of the judges being biased by preconceived notions about the lay of the land in a country of which they have no idea, and concerning the inhabitants of which they lack all practical knowledge. In short, there is no doubt but that the composition of the court, as provided in the act, is likely to insure, *theoretically*, the most complete impartiality.

The court may be placed in something akin to a dilemma. There are in New Mexico, for instance, more than one kind of ancient grants and titles. Some of them convey absolute dominion, others were intended as usufructs only, still others include both. In regard to the validity of Spanish titles it may be observed that if the judges should base their rulings upon the Laws of the Indies or upon such passages thereof as they may have translated for reference, it would be surprising if a single grant should be considered valid, for there is not one grant in New Mexico that comes up to the requirements of the "Leyes de Indias" in regard to confirmation, registry, and attestation. For more than a hundred years under Spanish rule there was no public notary in New Mexico. Such defects may induce the court simply to reject all titles of that kind presented to them. Still, there has scarcely ever been any question raised as to the authority of Spanish Governors to grant lands, and their grants, although lacking the royal confirmation and the notarial certificates, have not been disputed, except in a very few cases. It may be now that (although there is no evidence of it) some knowledge was obtained, in Congress as well as in the Supreme Court, of the peculiar conditions under which New Mexico was governed and administered by the representatives of Spain. It may be also that some attention has been bestowed upon the Ordonnances of 1573, or upon the contract made in 1595 with Don Juan de Oñate, or the royal decree of 1608 concerning the administration of New Mexico. Should these documents have been overlooked, it would be well for the Land Court to pay some

attention to them, since they virtually embody the basis upon which the validity of titles derived from Spanish Governors is founded. It might also not be amiss for the court to acquaint itself with the manner in which surveys of land were carried on a century ago, and not to insist (as some well-intentioned officers of the Government seem to have done) that the boundaries of tracts be determined after a system excellently fitted for regions where natural conditions are as different from those in the Southwest as the zebra is from the moan a n sheep.

In regard to Mexican grants, the main difficulty consists in the state of chronic political confusion peculiar to the Mexican Republic until lately. During the many years of constant turmoil in Mexico, land laws were promulgated which applied to every portion of the country except New Mexico. That Territory was simply overlooked, in the same manner as the Principality of Lichtenstein is said to have been omitted and overlooked when the German States made peace with each other in 1866, so that the Prince of Lichtenstein is still officially at war with the German Empire to-day. Notwithstanding the fact that the colonization laws of Mexico are not applicable to the Territory of New Mexico, our Supreme Court has, in several instances, based its decisions upon such acts of the Mexican Congress. There is also considerable uncertainty in regard to the authority of Mexican officers to grant lands, and the extent to which that authority (in case it existed) could be exercised, and it may require some effort to determine these points with sufficient accuracy.

The proof of title may present considerable difficulty. Through the scattering and partial destruction of the archives at Santa Fé about twenty years ago, many documents have disappeared—at least from the surface. Claims may be presented without the support of original titles or certified copies thereof, solely on parole evidence, or circumstantial evidence embodied in papers relative to entirely distinct subjects. Some curiosity may be felt as to how the court will act in such cases—whether it will exact proof according to our present laws, or whether it will recognize the principles of international law, and accept evidence that would have been deemed sufficient at the time when New Mexico was Spanish or Mexican. There is, of course, not the slightest doubt that the court will enter upon the performance of its duties only after it has thoroughly prepared itself for the solution of such intricate questions.

On the whole, the court has before it a wide and highly interesting field. The so-called land grants have long been regarded as one of the main impediments to the settlement of the Southwest by immigrants from the East or from Europe. The time has come now to remove this obstacle. If, in addition to a speedy and equitable settlement of all these ancient claims, the court should succeed in increasing rainfall, in causing a rapid spread of timber, and in unearthing the treasure which is said to exist at the so-called "Gran Quivira," it will have made the population of the Southwestern Territories completely happy.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, May, 1891.

If at the Royal Academy cheap sentiment and indifferent technique prevail, at the New Gallery indifferent technique and affectation are the order of the day. In England genuinely good work is the last quality looked for

in painting, or indeed in any branch of art. If a man be but eccentric or self-assertive enough, whatever he may choose to do is pronounced great by the artless public. Where would be the fame of Mr. Irving but for his mannerisms? But for his repeated praise of his own methods, where Mr. Henry Arthur Jones's reputation? The Neo-Gothic primitives, with Mr. Burne-Jones as high priest, have ever been distinguished by their firm belief in themselves, and eccentricity has been their one standard of art. That at home they have achieved a popularity second only to that of the sentimentalists of Burlington House, therefore, is not strange. If their renown were confined to England, it would be matter of small surprise; but the result of their taking themselves so seriously is that they are sometimes accepted no less seriously even on the Continent. There was a curious proof of this not long ago. A group of artists in Brussels, supposed to represent all that is most modern and most thoroughly artistic in contemporary art, every year invite two English artists to contribute to their exhibition. This year their invitation included Mr. P. Wilson Steer, a member of the New English Art Club, a self-styled London Impressionist, and Mr. Walter Crane. The latter has also quite a following in Paris, not only as an illustrator of children's books and a designer, when he is often delightful, but as a painter, when he is almost always execrable. Of course, if a little of the work of one of the English mediæval schools is seen, it does well enough, its very eccentricity appealing to the morbid modern craving for novelty and excitement; and on the Continent it is only this little which is seen. But it is another question in England, where, year after year, not one but all paint exactly the same subjects in exactly the same manner, until their affectations have become unendurable.

Certainly Mr. Burne-Jones's favorite tricks of drawing have never seemed more irritating than in the two large works he sends to the exhibition just opened at the New Gallery. His color, which is usually supposed to make up for imperfect draughtsmanship, worse perspective, and, in a word, for his every technical shortcoming, this year is extremely unpleasant. Both his pictures are inharmonious arrangements in blue and green, while in both his deformed rendering of the human figure is absurdly exaggerated. This is specially the case in the larger of the two, "The Star of Bethlehem," an adoration of the Magi, painted for the Corporation of Birmingham. The Virgin sits under an arbor covered with sweetbriar, like that which trails through the "Briar Rose" series. To one side is St. Joseph, in front the angel and the three kings, and all alike have the same impossible, misshapen neck, bent forward at an ugly angle; all, even the negro, have the same type of face; all are equally fleshless and bloodless, made apparently of parchment and wood. The detail, particularly in the robes of the negro, shows remarkable patience and care, but, while it might be appropriate in a small cabinet picture, it is sadly out of place in a piece of mural decoration of such enormous proportions, meant to be looked at from a distance, in which the broadest handling would be the most effective. The unpleasantness of the color is the more marked because the design is almost the same as that which, a year ago, was reproduced in one of his fine tapestries by Mr. William Morris, who carried it out according to his own color scheme, using only Mr. Burne-Jones's draw-

ing. The result was harmonious brilliancy very delightful to the eye, and it proved Mr. Morris the better colorist of the two.

The second large Burne-Jones picture is the "Sponsa de Libano" of Solomon's Song, with the South Wind and the North Wind blowing upon her garden. There is in the foreground the usual lay figure, graceful in pose according to the Burne-Jones convention; but the two Winds, hovering in the air, are the veriest abortions, and anything more grotesque than the Burne-Jones face, with cheeks puffed out and lips projected in the act of blowing, could not be, except, indeed, the sickly greenish-blue draperies, twisted and knotted in a great parody of the Japanese swirl of life behind them. To the initiated there is scarcely a brushmark but has its hidden or literary meaning; the lover of good painting, however, would prefer less literature and more art.

Of the immediate followers of Mr. Burne-Jones, none rise above mediocrity of imitation, while at least one, his son, Mr. Philip Burne-Jones, sinks to the abyss of puerility by endeavoring to paint "Earth-Rise from the Moon." The belief that art is concerned with any and every thing rather than beauty of form, and line, and color, and perfection of workmanship is the curse of English painters; but none has it misled so hopelessly as the little group who teach—for the English painter of to-day is nothing if not didactic—that the highest duty of the artist is to paint, not what he sees, but what he imagines. This doctrine recently has been very eloquently expounded by Mr. Richmond. Portrait-painting he holds in contempt, because it is the mere rendering of real men and women. It is with the creations of the imagination alone that the true artist should be concerned; and he extols Mr. Burne-Jones because, when the latter introduces a casket, for example, in one of his pictures, he places no model before him, but paints one which he sees only with his mind's eye, this accounting, no doubt, for much that is otherwise incomprehensible in his drawing. Where a painter finds his models, or what he selects as subject, has nothing to do with the results which he chooses to show to the world: it is his affair, not ours. But when the spiritualism or idealism or morality or eccentricity of his subject preoccupies him so entirely that he gives nothing else on his canvas, that he is wholly indifferent to the manner in which he expresses it, then it is within one's right to say, This is not art, and pass on.

Mr. Richmond himself is an excellent witness to the demoralizing influence of his doctrine. His most important work, as probably he would consider it, he sends to the New Gallery. It is called "Amor Omnia Vincit," and presumably represents Venus just after her bath, with two attendants waiting to begin her toilet, a wide landscape showing beyond the marbles of the foreground. If his study of the nude were good, he might call it Venus and welcome; the name can make it neither better nor worse, can neither increase nor lessen its interest. But it is not good; the women of his imagination are made of wax and not flesh and blood; they are without modelling, and as flat as if they were cut out of paper. There is no character or beauty in their faces. Indeed, the faithful study of any St. John's Wood model, any coarse and hideous washerwoman such as Degas painted, would have had more interest, because greater individuality, greater reality than the flat, pale puppets of Mr. Richmond's imagining. And landscape, as his fancy sees it, reconciles one to Nature, who never, in her most brilliant moods, shows such

crude and gaudy pinks and purples. The impression of so careful an observer as Monet has far more beauty, and consequently more artistic value, than the invention of a would-be idealist like Mr. Richmond.

Mr. Watts is another prominent member of the school who are all for the imagination. There have been times when splendor of color and a certain grandeur of form have distinguished his work and made it great despite, and not because, of his mistaken theory. But this year he is seen at his worst in a picture of the Flood, which will be remembered by visitors to his studio, where it has been hanging for some time. It may be curious to learn that a large mass of orange paint, looking like nothing so much as the section of a tree, represents his idea of a deluge, but certainly there is not even the suggestion of fine color or form, or of technical accomplishment, to give it artistic distinction. His "Nixie's Foundling," his only other canvas, is also one of his productions in which there is more imagination than art, and it must be counted one of his failures.

It would be useless to dwell at such length on the exhibited work which is least artistic, were it not that it gives the New Gallery collection whatever little character it has, and that it is the outcome of the most deplorable but most highly esteemed tendency in modern English art. Its very pretentiousness duly impresses that portion of the British public which prides itself on having outgrown the anecdotic stage of art as exemplified at Burlington House, not knowing that it has escaped one pitfall for the artless only to tumble into another.

There is some good work in the show, fortunately, but it is scattered here and there, it represents no particular school, as the landscapes were representative of the new Glasgow school at last year's Grosvenor; it does not occupy a conspicuous space in point of size on the walls; but while it may attract comparatively little attention from the casual visitor, to the artist it alone has any intrinsic worth. Foremost is a portrait by Mr. Sargent, not so striking as his Spanish dancing-girl at the Academy, but no less masterly. It shows a girl of fifteen or sixteen in a white gown, sitting on an oak bench and leaning against an old oak-wainscotted wall. Like "La Carmenita," it too has its faults: the face is unnecessarily chalky, the brown hair falling thick about it has rather too much of the quality of tow. But the hands folded in the lap, the foot in its white satin slipper, could hardly be better; and the gown, with all the delicate differences between the white stuffs of which it is made exquisitely suggested, is a masterpiece. But, above all, the portrait has character and individuality, and forces your attention; you remember the strangely repellant, somewhat evil face, just as you would remember a Velasquez, a Rembrandt, or a Franz Hals, long after you have forgotten the dressmaker's dummy which too many English artists elect to paint. Most of the portraits in the gallery are of no great importance; even the few that are good come a long way after Mr. Sargent's girl in white. One of the strongest is Mr. Rudyard Kipling, by the Hon. John Collier, who seems to have been inspired by his subject. While the other two portraits he exhibits are no better nor worse than those many a well-trained student might show, his Mr. Kipling is strong in character and sound in painting; there is vigorous brushwork and fine quality in the white Norfolk jacket. Mr. Edwin A. Ward is one of the most promising of the

younger portrait-painters, and if his Lord Randolph Churchill is not up to his standard, he also contributes the portrait of a little girl in a gray plush freckle, which is delightful in its artistic simplicity of treatment, and a refreshing contrast to the Cherry-Ripe type of the popular child picture. Mr. Herkomer, Mr. Richmond, and Sir John E. Millais have rarely turned out worse portraits. But it is a pleasure to find that Mr. Shannon (an American, by the way), in painting Miss Clough of Newnham, has not been overpowered by milinery, as he too often is, but has given a good, straightforward rendering of a woman of mature years and strongly marked character.

On the whole, the landscapes reach a higher level than the portraits. Here again Mr. Adrian Stokes is to the fore, and with a more interesting and pictorial subject than that of his Academy picture, though this subject—a quiet sunset from high Cornish downs overlooking the sea, a woman and two cows in the foreground—would have availed him little had he not succeeded so marvellously in rendering the atmospheric effects and the feeling of an evening when the sun sinks in a great ball of fire behind a bank of clouds on the horizon, and a light mist rises from the sea. Nature has few subtler phases, but his impression is as true as it is restrained. The well-drawn, firmly modelled cows and woman have that strange, almost unreal look that the hour lends to all things, but there is no exaggeration, no meretricious sentiment. There could not be more speaking proof of the fallacy of the Richmond theory; because of his fidelity to nature, Mr. Stokes has filled his canvas with that poetic charm which Mr. Richmond's imagination has so signally failed to give to his Venus and her surrounding. Mr. Arthur Lemon and Mr. Arthur Tomson, who always paint with refinement and breadth of handling, also have good landscapes, strong in the right open-air feeling. And there is notable work by Mr. T. Hope McLachlan, who usually shows Nature in her most dramatic moments, but without melodrama or claptrap; by Mr. J. Denovan Adam, a Scotchman, who knows how to paint Highland cattle; and by Mr. Alfred East, who, at his best, is a painter of some little distinction.

Mr. Alfred Parsons this year has been content to reserve most of his work for an exhibition he gave a month or so ago at the Fine Art Society's on Bond Street. He has nothing at the Academy save a black-and-white drawing already reproduced in *Harper's*. But at the New Gallery, though a small landscape is of no special interest, he shows one of the strongest pieces of work he has done for a long time: a vase of poppies on a window seat, with a landscape dimly seen through the muslin curtain at the window behind it. The technique is no less brilliant than the color. It is marked by far greater freedom of handling than he has accustomed us to expect from him. Two fresh, breezy seas by Mr. Henry Moore, a typical Tadema, but of less artistic importance than the Academy Tadema, landscapes by Mr. John R. Reid, and a striking little interior by Miss Flora M. Reid, are about the only remaining contributions of interest.

The water-colors are more hopelessly commonplace than the collection at Burlington House; it would have been wiser to hang none. Illustration is represented by Mr. Edward T. Reed, one of the newer *Punch* men, a draughtsman without style or refinement or force. No branch of art is so completely ignored in the large London galleries as illustration. There are good black-and-white men, American or English, in London, and yet

Messrs. Hallé and Carr's choice has fallen upon one of the least merit or standing; while, as if in satire, we have S r Frederick Leighton at the Royal Academy banquet singing the praises of Charles Keene, the most distinguished of all English draughtsmen, to whom the Academy never accorded the slightest recognition during his lifetime. A major-general, unknown in the art world, contributes the only etchings; as I said of the water-colors, far better would it have been to show none. And but little more wisdom has been displayed in the selection of sculpture. There are a few busts and reliefs fairly good, but nothing of sufficient importance to call for special mention here.

N. N.

GONCOURT'S JOURNAL.

PARIS, May 14, 1891.

FROM time to time there appears a new volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt.' I have now before me the fifth volume, which has made more noise than its predecessors on account of a preface which is addressed to Renan. You will perhaps remember that the notes (or these volumes are a mere succession of notes) of the fourth volume had been written chiefly during the siege of Paris and the Commune, and that Goncourt gave a lively account of the conversation which took place during that period at the monthly dinners of the little literary and scientific society of which Renan was a member. Renan was much offended by the indiscretion of Goncourt, and he expressed his disapprobation in strong terms. He wrote to a friend a letter which was published in a Breton paper called the *Petit Lannionais* (from the town of Lannion): "All these accounts given by M. de Goncourt of dinners of which he had no right to make himself the historiographer, are complete transformations of the truth. He did not understand, and he attributes to us what his mind, closed to all general ideas, made him believe or hear. As for what concerns myself, I protest, with all my strength, against this sorrowful reporting. . . . I hold it as a principle that the babbling of fools is of no consequence."

We might well say here, "genus irritable vatum." Renan was especially angry because, during the war, he expressed sentiments which were not those of a *chauvin*—which superficial readers might call unpatriotic. M. de Goncourt maintains that, during the two or three years which preceded the war, the superiority of German science, of everything German, was one of the common topics of conversation at the monthly dinners at Magny's. I knew intimately Neftzer and Scherer, and I am sure that this assertion of Goncourt's is correct. Renan's exegetic work was in its most scientific part inspired by Germany; it was perfectly natural—and why should he reject the imputation?—that when Renan and some of his friends found France dragged into war against her own will by Napoleon III, when they saw France unprepared for this terrible war, they prophesied the triumph of Germany! It does not follow that they rejoiced in the humiliation of their own country.

In the midst of exciting events, the opinions of such men as Renan may well at times take an excited and paradoxical form. It is my own opinion that M. de Goncourt would have done better not to report almost literally conversations held in the fearful circumstances which he describes. On the other hand, since he had done so, Renan would have done better to ignore this publication and to treat it with complete indifference. M. de Goncourt

himself admits in his preface that he was indiscreet. "I accept the reproach," says he, "and I am not ashamed of it, as my indiscretions are not divulgations concerning private life, but divulgations of the thoughts and ideas of my contemporaries—documents for the intellectual history of our century. . . . Since the world began, memoirs in the least interesting have been written only by indiscreet people." Goncourt tells us that his accounts of the dinners at Magny's were always written the same evening or, at the latest, the next morning. If he has a merit it is exactitude; he says that his notes "sont l'authenticité."

The fifth volume begins with the year 1872 and ends in 1877; it extends, therefore, over that period during which France was in an equivocal political condition—Republic in name and *de facto*, but not yet a Republic *de jure*. The Empire had come to an end, but on January 1, 1872, Goncourt writes: "A day or two since, finding in the Rue de la Paix a number of fine carriages, as many as at a first representation at the French Theatre, I asked myself, Who is the great personage whose door is besieged by so many fine people? when, lifting my gaze above the door, I read 'Worth.' Paris continues to be the Paris of the Empire."

Goncourt had, on March 2, 1872, at his own house at dinner, Flaubert, Théophile Gautier, and Turgeneff. How well he describes "Turgeneff, the mild giant, the amiable barbarian, with his white hair falling over his eyes, the deep furrow which cuts his forehead from one temple to the other, like the trace of a plough, with his infantine voice. From the soup he charms us, he garlands us (as the Russian expression is), by his mixture of naïveté and finesse. He has all the seductiveness of the Slav race, a seductiveness which is heightened by the originality of an individual mind, and by an immense and cosmopolitan knowledge." Turgeneff told the company how he was put in prison for a month after the publication of his 'Mémoires d'un Chasseur.' He fraternized with the chief of the police, and gave him champagne to drink, till, one day, this policeman lifted his glass and drank "to Rotespierre!" "Yes," said Turgeneff, "if I were proud, I would have people write on my tomb only what that book did for the emancipation of the serfs. The Emperor Alexander intimated to me that the reading of my book was one of the great motives that determined him." Many are Goncourt's confidences concerning Turgeneff, and I am sorry to say they are not always pleasant. But it is impossible for those who knew Turgeneff not to recognize him, with all his charm and all his weaknesses, with his originality of thought and expression.

This is what Turgeneff says of Taine: "The comparison is not a noble one, but allow me to compare Taine to a pointer I once had; he stopped, he looked about, he had all the motions of a pointer, only he had no nose. I was obliged to sell him." One day Zola was complaining loudly: "I shall never be decorated. I shall never belong to the Academy. I shall never have one of those distinctions which are the affirmation of talent with the great public. I shall always be a pariah; yes, a pariah." And he repeated this word "pariah" four or five times. Turgeneff looked at him with a sort of paternal irony, and told him he was invited to the Russian Embassy, to a banquet given on the occasion of the emancipation of the serfs. He had had something to do with this emancipation, and his friend Prince Orloff, the Russian Ambassador at the time, had not forgotten him. "I am not, perhaps, in Russia the first Russian littérateur; but in Paris, as

there was no other, you will concede that I was the first. Well, under these circumstances, do you know how I was placed at table? I had the forty-seventh place. I was placed after the pope, and you know how the pope is despised in Russia."

It is difficult to give an analysis of a book like the 'Journal des Goncourt.' All you can do is to note certain traits which concern interesting characters. Turgeneff comes out in high relief, but I am sorry that Goncourt shows a sort of prurient pleasure in repeating the most extraordinary recollections of Turgeneff. The 'Journal' could hardly be placed in the hands of a decent woman, even if she was an old woman; and some of the pages in it have spoiled Turgeneff for me. Daudet's physiognomy also comes out very vividly—Daudet of the sunny South, with his semi-Bohemian ways, his extraordinary powers of observation. One day Daudet tells at Flaubert's house the story of his childhood. "It was passed in a house without money, with a father who changed his trade every day, in the eternal fog of Lyons." At the age of twelve, Daudet read poetry, works of the imagination "which exalted his brain; his readings were carried on in the drunkenness produced by liquors which he had stolen at home." "Daudet is the pretty, hairy young man with an eyeglass, who throws back every moment superbly his long hair. He speaks amusingly of his impudent way of putting in his books whatever furnishes him literary observations." You will find in every book of Daudet's observations taken from life; a Parisian can affix names to almost all his characters. We are shown Daudet's life in his little country house at Champrosay, in the old Hôtel Lamoignon, in the Marais. "He has lived in this hôtel for seven years (since 1875), and tells me that the house has been good for him; it has made him calmer and wiser. He had a feverish youth, a youth which long preserved, as he expressed it, the swell, the last undulations of the sea after the tempest. Well, in this quiet house, pacific and sleepy, he has been transformed, and his laborious purring has made another man of him." Workingmen all over the world are making a great stir about the limitation of the hours of labor. What do you think of this written on the 9th of October, 1877, at Champrosay? "Daudet is killing himself. For five months he has been working from four o'clock in the morning to eight, from nine to twelve, from two to six, from eight to midnight—in all twenty hours' work." As a comment it is necessary to say that Daudet is now suffering from a nervous disease.

Nobody is more often mentioned in these notes of Goncourt's than his friend Flaubert, the author of 'Madame Bovary.' There was more than a common friendship between them—there was a literary friendship. They were both naturalists, realists, the first of a class which has become very large. As far back as 1872 Goncourt wrote: "Flaubert is, at the present moment, so cross, so cutting, so irascible, so angry at everything and at nothing, that I fear my poor friend will suffer a nervous breakdown." We know, by the indiscretion of Maxime Ducamp, that Flaubert had epileptic fits, which he carefully concealed; his nervous system was at all times in a disordered state, and his temper was the result of his health. His sensitiveness was extreme. The idea of travelling in a railway carriage opposite a man whose face might be disagreeable to him, made him uncomfortable and hindered him from travelling. "No," said he one day, "I cannot bear any annoyance. The notaries of

Rouen look upon me as a madman; in a matter of an inheritance I said to them, 'Let my co-heirs take all they want, but don't speak to me of anything—I would rather be robbed than annoyed'; and it is so with everything, with my publishers." Goncourt paints very vividly this physical disorganization in a man who was built like a giant, and makes sad reflections on those who indulge in excessive brain work: "It is positive that we are all ill, all mad, and ready to become completely so."

On the whole, these Journals will remain a valuable, though very incomplete, document for the literary history of our time.

Correspondence.

FURTHER DISCOVERIES AMONG THE BRITISH MUSEUM PAPYRI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A small volume will appear containing the unpublished papyri of literary interest in the British Museum. Their preparation and publication is under the direction of Mr. Kenyon, to whom is due the *editio princeps*, so justly admired in Germany and America, as well as in England, of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens.'

The most noteworthy addition to the known body of Greek literature which the new volume will bring, consists of seven poems of about 100 lines each, written by Herodas (Herondas or Herodes). From these, scholars will doubtless be able to determine, if not the orthography of his name, at least the time when this poet lived. The date hitherto assigned has varied between the early period of Hippo-nax and the Alexandrine age of Callimachus. The twenty-five lines of his composition hitherto known consist of fragments, the longest and least obscure of which comprises four lines. All but one are in the hobbling iambic metre invented for satirical purposes by Hippo-nax and called the choliambic measure. It is interesting to find that all the new verses of Herodas are in this same comically hamstrung rhythm. They are described by Mr. Kenyon as "dramatic idylls," and are chiefly of domestic interest. One contains an account of the visit paid by a party of women to a temple of Æsculapius. Interesting allusion is made to works of art in the temple, and a well-known passage in the "Ion" of Euripides may possibly have been in the mind of the poet. This has its bearing upon the date of composition, and may give support to Bergk's surmise that Herodas was a contemporary of Xenophon, whose son Gryllus he is supposed to mention.

The characteristic liveliness of our "iambographer" has full scope in another of the new poems, where the mother of an incorrigible "mauvais sujet" brings him for salutary flogging to the schoolmaster. It is to be hoped that the boy was not old enough or not clever enough to turn upon his wrathful mother with that charming line of Herodas which declares that "an agreeable woman is bound to stand anything."

The diction of these poems, like that of the shreds and patches of Herodas already known, is very strange. The MS. is a long and narrow papyrus-roll, well preserved only in the middle. One end is badly rubbed, while the worms have had their way with the other.

A second papyrus contains nine narrow columns of an attack—presumably, but not certainly, by Hyperides—upon a political opponent whom he arraigns for violation of the Constitution. The beginning of this speech is lacking; its ending is preserved intact.

With this absolutely new material will also appear collations of parts of works already well known. These papyri contain nearly the whole of three books of the 'Iliad' (ii-iv), considerable fragments of two books (xxiii and xxiv), and small bits from four others (i, v, xvi, and xviii). The back of the papyrus containing 'Iliad' ii-iv has written upon it the text of a grammatical treatise bearing the name of Tryphon. It is to be hoped that this also may be published, as well as a collation of Isocrates "de Pace" and of the third epistle of Demosthenes, both of which are among the treasures of Mr. Kenyon. Treasures they surely must be called, since their date appears to range between 100 B. C. and 500 A. D.

Yours very truly,
LOUIS DYER.

LONDON, May 16, 1891.

THE BIRTH-RATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading your notice of Prof. Richet's paper in *La Réforme Sociale* upon the French birth-rate, I was impressed anew, as I have been many times before, by what seems to me the extreme obtuseness of writers upon sociology in regard to the really serious side of the population question. Nearly all such writers seem to assume that a rapid increase in population is a good thing in itself, and is to be taken as a true measure of prosperity in a nation or a community. This tendency was most amusingly shown in almost all our journals last year in the discussion upon the results of the census. It seemed to be taken for granted that it is vastly better to have five hundred people in a town than four hundred, and a million and a half in a city than a million; yet upon reflection scarcely anything could appear more absurd than this assumption.

As you so well say, "The most likely way for any nation to be happy is for all the individuals in it to be happy," and I think that it would be difficult to prove that this universal happiness is sure to result from a rapid increase in population. To my mind, the really vital and alarming fact is, that, under the present conditions of our civilization, society is continually dying at the top. In the lowest walks of life, and especially in the most crowded parts of our great cities, and where the means of livelihood are most meagre and most precarious, the capacity for reproduction, following early marriages or illicit unions, seems as illimitable as it is unrestrained, while in the more prosperous and well-to-do classes marriages occur later and the number of offspring becomes less; and in the majority of families which have experienced several generations of comparative ease and culture, the numbers become stationary, then decline, and finally the families themselves, so far as public knowledge goes, become extinct.

This, in its two aspects—the crowding into life at the bottom of the scale, the rapid thinning out at the top—is no light matter. Indeed, it seems to me to so far exceed in importance every other fact in sociology as to render any speculation upon social conditions, or any proposed remedy for social evils, which fails to take it into account, comparatively, if not absolutely, worthless. Thanks to our commercial system, we may assume that of late years there has always been enough food in existence for the existing population, and food is the necessary condition of continued life and all life's possibilities. It is true that this food has not always reached the mouths which were waiting for it, but, alas! it seems likewise true that this has been the sole effective con-

servative influence which kept matters from becoming worse than they actually have been. The fact upon which Malthus so much insisted, that population tends to increase more rapidly than the means of subsistence, is a fact as regards the poverty-stricken classes of all great cities, and, in my judgment, no scheme of social reform, Socialistic or Anarchistic, can ever by any possibility be effective in the removal of misery and degradation which does not recognize this fact, and in some way tend to restrict increase in the lowest stratum of the "dependent classes." The struggle for existence which Darwin showed characterizes all organic life, is as positive in the human family as elsewhere, and it can only be happily controlled by the exercise of intellectual power.

Whether in the case of families of long standing there is an inevitable tendency to actual infertility such as must result in their extinction, is not yet clear; the accumulated data are insufficient to base a conclusion upon. That there is a considerable decrease in fertility seems certain, but other causes may account for much of the result which might mistakenly be traced to this.

Whether means can be found to combat effectively the two tendencies which I have described remains to be decided, and until this is decided, the future of our civilization is an uncertain quantity. Considering, however, the horribly rapid growth of our great cities, with the thousands and tens of thousands huddled together in their swarming tenement-house districts, the problem is one which is ever pressing more and more strongly for a solution.

WILLIAM POTTS.

MAY 23, 1891.

ETCHINGS AND PHOTOGRAVURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I state in reply to Mr. Hamerton that I have never "tried to depreciate etching"? Certainly, in the illustration of books, reproductions of pen drawings have taken the place of etchings; but to say this does not imply that the artistic value of etching has been lessened. As an etcher and a pen draughtsman I can appreciate both arts. And if both could be printed with letter-press, I should practise the one as much as the other.—Yours truly,

JOSEPH PENNELL.

LONDON, May 12, 1891.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. will publish directly Margaret O. W. Oliphant's 'Memoir of the Life of Laurence Oliphant and of Alice Oliphant his wife,' in two volumes; 'A Flying Trip around the World,' by Elizabeth Bisland; Matthew Arnold's selection from the Poems of Wordsworth; and 'What to Eat—How to Serve It,' by Christine Terhune Herrick.

D. Appleton & Co. will add to their summer series of light reading 'From Shadow to Sunlight,' a novelette by the Marquis of Lorne.

Dr. Julius Froebel has finally yielded to the importunities of his friends and the wishes of his publisher, and abandoned his original intention of not permitting the second volume of his autobiography, 'Ein Lebenslauf,' to be issued until after his death. After revising the manuscript and changing some forms of expression which might be offensive to persons still living, but without omitting anything of importance or modifying his views in the slightest degree, he has now placed it in the hands of the printer, and the appearance of this

valuable contribution to the recent and contemporary political history of Germany and of Europe may be expected at an early date. Froebel's vigorous old age, which promises yet many years of life, seemed to render any further delay in the publication of a work of so great and immediate interest to the present generation undesirable.

By the death of the retired Prof. Eduard Wilhelm Reuss at his home near Strassburg on April 15, Germany has lost one of her chief pioneers in the contiguous provinces of modern Protestant theology and Oriental scholarship. Reuss, born at Strassburg July 18, 1804, was strongly attached and always remained true to his native city, which no promises of academical preferment could ever induce him to leave. Physically slight, he possessed marvelous powers of endurance, and in this respect resembled Döllinger, with whom he had, besides vast learning and a tenacious memory, quite a number of marked intellectual traits in common. As one might naturally expect from their respective confessions or systems of faith, the Protestant was stronger in Biblicalism and hermeneutics, and the Catholic more at home in ecclesiastical history and dogmatics. Reuss was diligent with his pen to the very last, and among his posthumous papers are numerous poems, dissertations, and extended records of his thoughts and experiences in the form of diaries which, it is to be hoped, will be given to the public.

It will rejoice the hearts of bibliophiles as well as of Biblical students to learn that the famous Greek manuscript of the New Testament, which dates from the fifth century and constitutes one of the chief treasures of the Vatican Library, where it is well known to scholars by its catalogue number 1209, is now being photographically facsimiled by order of Pope Leo XIII, who intends to present a copy of the work to each of the principal libraries of Christendom. It is to be hoped that none of our large public and university libraries will be overlooked by the official dispensers of this generosity.

'Des Herrn Friedrich Ost's Erlebnisse in der Welt Bellamy's' is the title of a recent novel by Konrad Wilbrandt, a member of the German Imperial Diet and a writer of some note on political and economical topics. The experiences of Friedrich Ost are intended to show the practical difficulties that would necessarily arise from a State monopoly of all the social, political, domestic, industrial, and intellectual activities of mankind as imagined and described by Bellamy in 'Looking Backward'; and to prove that this millennial golden age of the future, like the mythical golden age of the past, is merely a poet's dream.

About three years ago Mr. Theodore Kirchhoff of San Francisco made a trip to Hawaii, an account of which he now publishes under the title of 'Eine Reise nach Hawaii' (E. Steiger). He manages to convey a considerable amount of useful information of the regulation guide-book variety, and his way of putting it might be pronounced quite inoffensive except for an occasional lapse into a facetiousness which, being of the stereotyped beer-commers style, is not always in the best of taste.

'Hassan le Janissaire' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie), by Léon Cahun, purports to be an historical novel with its scene laid in Turkey in the sixteenth century; it might as well be in China in the first century, for its characters are nothing but marionettes, and its incidents are of a sufficiently blood-curdling description to suit any age or country. It might be regarded as a new type of the prevailing dialect story, being plentifully larded with Turkish

words which convey no meaning to the reader and add to the indigestibility of the book.

'Seame and Lilles' has just been added to the 'Brantwood Edition' of Ruskin's Works published in this country, by authority, by Charles E. Merrill & Co. Prof. Norton furnishes again an introduction.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued a popular edition, in a single volume, of Prof. Charles F. Richardson's 'American Literature' (1667-1885). It is in every respect a presentable book, and the purchaser will, in view of the lower price, forgive the retention of two indexes, whereas their amalgamation might have been looked for. The original two volumes, it will be remembered, appeared at an interval in 1886 and 1888.

Mrs. Hawthorne's 'Notes in England and Italy' were made public by the reluctant author a little more than twenty years ago. They now appear anew with a changed imprint (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and with a portrait of Mrs. Hawthorne etched by Schaff. The Italian portion is quite two-thirds of the volume, and is largely devoted to works of art.

The same publishers send us the revised Sweetser's 'White Mountains' (eleventh edition) and 'Maritime Provinces' (eighth edition). They are incomparable handbooks for the tourist, and they are faithfully kept up to date.

Mr. James Clegg, Wet Rake, Rochdale, England, has got out a third edition of his 'Directory of Second-Hand Booksellers, and List of Public Libraries, British and Foreign.' Other topics than those mentioned in the title are "Fictitious Names, etc., used by Authors and Book Illustrators," a curious array, "Initials Used by Authors," "Book Collectors Wanting Catalogues and Reports," "Bibliographical Works of Reference," "Ancient Centres of Printing, with their Latin Equivalents"; "Glossary of Terms Used in Literature and the Book and Printing Trades"; "Abbreviations," and much other information of a convenient sort for literary workers. The list of second-hand-book sellers is the completest undertaking of all those we have enumerated. Mr. Clegg has trebled the size of the previous edition (1888).

The ninth volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the Writings of Washington (G. P. Putnam's Sons) covers parts of three years, 1780-1782. Beginning with the revolt of the Pennsylvania and Jersey lines, and subsequent troubles with the troops of Massachusetts and New York, aggravated by a general state of military unpreparedness and deficiency, it takes in the surrender of Cornwallis, and ends with Washington's plan of campaign drawn up at Newburgh on May 1, 1782. The disturbance between the "Vermontese" and the New Yorkers, and the suspicious conferences of the former with the British in Canada, are also visible in these pages. Washington's private personality shines out in connection with his Virginia estate, from which some of his slaves are seduced by the enemy, and others have to be sold to pay taxes. Of special interest is the letter to Benjamin Harrison, Speaker of the Virginia Assembly, objecting to the movement in that body to pension Washington's mother.

Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites's 'The Colonies, 1492-1750' (Longmans) is a swift sketch of the American colonies down to the very eve of the Revolution. It is highly condensed—perhaps, indeed, it is somewhat too full of nutriment for the uninformed—and its arrangement is orderly and convenient. After the necessary account of early settlements, the manual proceeds, on three main lines, to treat severally of the Southern,

Middle, and New England divisions in their political, social, and economic aspects, not forgetting meanwhile to include the other English colonies and New France. Like most compendiums, it will principally invite those able by previous familiarity with the subject to follow easily so rapid a movement. The subject is virtually a fresh one as approached by Mr. Thwaites. Mr. Lodge's 'Short History of the English Colonies' is more leisurely in its treatment, more restricted in its scope, and does not anticipate the plan herein followed. The present volume is the first of the "Epochs of American History," a series having for its editor Dr. Albert B. Hart of Cambridge. It is a pleasure to call especial attention to some most helpful and not overdone bibliographical notes provided by the editor at the head of each chapter, which he should feel encouraged to continue in future volumes. These aids are made in the spirit of the healthy activity in historical study which has been so stimulating a factor in Harvard College for the past fifteen years, so that any one desirous to pursue a larger method of investigation will do well to follow Dr. Hart's notes.

The Messrs. Putnam have reissued the valuable *repertory of 'Documents illustrative of American History, 1606-1863'*, compiled by Howard W. Preston, and first published in 1886. We observe no changes in it except typographical.

'Light in Africa' (London: Hodder & Stoughton), by the Rev. James Macdonald, is mainly an account of missionary work in Kafiraria between the years 1875 and 1887. It gives, on the whole, an encouraging view of the progress of the natives, especially in industrial education. Life at an exposé station during one of the frequent wars between the different tribes is also graphically described. The most valuable chapter is that upon the habits and customs of the natives, in which numerous interesting facts and observations relating to nearly every phase of native life and belief are to be found. Witchcraft holds, of course, a prominent place in their lives, but of religion there is almost nothing. Human sacrifices are absolutely unknown, and there are no very distinct traces of fetish. While believing in the existence of the spirit, the natives have no idea of a resurrection, yet have a crude conception of creation and a singular theory as to the origin of death, that it "came into the world by a fraud." Equally interesting is their tradition as to their migration from the centre of the continent, which bears such a close resemblance to a well-known classical story as to make its originality doubtful.

The State Commissioners of the Topographical Survey of Rhode Island are now preparing an edition of their map on four sheets on a scale of an inch to a mile, with contours, including the whole State and adjoining parts of Connecticut and Massachusetts. This large map is made by combination of the small sheets of the Government form of publication, with the addition of the State and county lines in a light red color. An appropriation of \$4,500 has been made by the Legislature for the preparation and distribution of the map to the schools and public libraries of the State, in this, as in the map itself, following the example of New Jersey. Proof-sheets of half the map, just brought from the press, are now open to inspection in the exhibition of the Brooklyn Institute's geographical collection in Boston during the present month. The entire map will be about four by six feet. When complete, it will be on sale to the public at moderate cost.

We have received the first numbers of a new

weekly German Republican high-tariff organ, called the *National-Zeitung*, which was launched this month in Chicago. In form (quarto) it is much more attractive than the generality of newspapers published in German, and its contents are varied and interesting. The editor is Joseph Brucker. In the second number, Julius Gugler of Milwaukee furnishes translations into German of Whittier's new poem, "Immortality," and Howell's poem, "Mortality," and intimates that the musical friend who called his attention to the former will presently set it to music—we presume in the German version. It has not been the lot of the Quaker poet to be thus honored as freely as was Longfellow, and, indeed, we recall only his own adaptation of a Frémont campaign song ("Sound now the trumpet warningly") to the air *Suoni la tromba*. This song is not included in his collected works, and search of it in its published sheet-music form has proved unavailing.

Mr. Hamerton continues his chapters on "The Present State of the Fine Arts in France" in the April and May numbers of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan). He deals with Impressionism and with the Survival of Classical Sentiment, throwing a good deal of light on the former term, and illustrating both subjects by reference to the works of artists in the respective categories. Reviews of W. J. Linton's 'Masters of Wood-Engraving' and of Pillet's 'Madame Vigée-le-Brun' occupy considerable space in these numbers.

In its last half-dozen issues *L'Art* (Macmillan) concludes the review of a century of *salonniers*, or critics of art exhibitions, in France, gives another instalment of its century of engraving (1789-1889) in connection with the late Exposition, notices with portraits of the composer Céar Franck and the painter Émile van Marcke de Lummen, both Frenchmen—though the one was born in Belgium and the other was of a Flemish family—discusses Abraham Bosse and his work as an engraver, and has, besides, the usual miscellany. A full-page portrait in eau-forte of President Carnot accompanies No. 642.

"E." writes to us: "In your notice of Symes's 'The Prelude to Modern History' (No. 1346), the critic states that 'the Gothic historian Jornandes is disguised as 'Jordanes,' and intimates that this is a slip of the pen on the part of the author. Such is not the case. 'Jornandes' is used by Grimm, Wackernagel, and other writers, but the only form of the name found in manuscripts and early documents is 'Jordanes,' and this is now generally accepted by scholars as the proper orthography."

"T. B." writes from Leipzig: "In Bescherelle's 'Dictionnaire National' (1856) I find, under *escalier*, the following quotation from Imbert (place not given): 'On s'avise souvent sur l'escalier d'un bon mot qu'on a manqué de dire dans la chambre.'"

The strong and genial face of the late lamented naturalist Joseph Leidy has been fixed for posterity by Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, in his imperial panel series. It would adorn any museum.

—The regular scientific organization of "Psychical Research" seems to proceed apace. We have received the first numbers of two new journals devoted to the subject, one published in Leipzig by Abel, the other in Paris by Alcan. The German one is entitled *Schriften der Gesellschaft für Psychologische Forschung*, and is edited by Dr. Max Dessoir. The French one is the *Annales des Sciences Psychiques*, and is edited by Dr. Dariex. Both seem characterized by a severely accurate and critical spirit, though the contents of the *An-*

nales is much more meagre than that of the *Schriften*; the only strictly new matter of fact in this number of the former being the record of four cases of "veridical hallucination" gathered at first hand, with the accompanying documents, by the editor. Prof. Charles Richet contributes a preface; and presumably the periodical will grow. It is to appear every two months. The German journal is thicker (90 pp.) and richer. Its most interesting contribution is a paper by Dr. Von Schrenk-Notzing on the relation of narcotics to hypnosis. The facts have been previously known, but are here brought together and studied systematically for the first time. Non-hypnotizable persons may be hypnotized after taking a few whiffs of ether and chloroform, and then by suggestion made hypnotizable in future without these agents. By combining a small dose of chloroform with hypnotic procedure complete anesthesia can be readily induced. Hashish produces great suggestibility, without any of the common hypnotic processes being used. All the ordinary hypnotic phenomena can be observed in persons intoxicated with this drug. There are many able men at work in Germany upon all these borderland phenomena; and since this new journal is the combined organ of the Berlin and Munich Psychical Research Societies, it is fair to predict for it a vigorous future.

—Our own Anglo-American "S. P. R." shows no symptoms of diminution of vigor. Its Proceedings appear regularly three or four times a year, always with some new record of facts, reported so authentically, and discussed so impartially, as to have permanent "documentary" importance. The collection is already of great value. Earlier reports of supernormal occurrences, abundantly as they lie scattered through literature, are practically unutilizable, for the vague and uncritical character of the record makes it usually easy to doubt what the alleged fact really was or whether it took place at all. The great function of a psychical-research society seems to be that of a sort of weather-bureau for catching these meteor-like phenomena as they happen, and putting them on record in so irreproachable a way that they can serve as authentic material for future natural philosophers to lay at the base of their speculations. This demands above all a certain longevity on the Society's part—the importance of its records being essentially accumulative. It demands also patience on the members' part, and a capacity for being satisfied with a good deal of humdrum detail of no very "sensational" interest. In the number just published of the Proceedings, there is the beginning of what promises to be a vigorous discussion of the evidence for clairvoyance, by Mrs. Henry Sidgwick, and a decidedly interesting account, by M. Marillier, of certain apparitions of the Holy Virgin to peasants in Dordogne, which he studied on the spot. A somewhat neurotic shepherd girl, Marie Magontier by name, who saw the Virgin one day when by accident she peered into a crack at the bottom of an old ruined wall, seems to have been able to infect her whole neighborhood with the same visual hallucination, to which, later, others in the open air, as well as auditory hallucinations, were added in some of the subjects concerned. In the earlier days of the Church this would doubtless have made a first-rate miracle. At present the local priesthood is inclined to treat it as pathological. The possibility of collective hallucinations such as these probably throws light on the testimony in some old witchcraft epidemics. The part

played by the dark cavity in the wall is probably analogous to that which the crystal plays in "crystal-gazing," where dimly luminous appearances seem to stimulate the visual "centres" to abnormal activity. We understand that the American Branch of the Psychical Research Society is not yet self-supporting, and would be glad to enlarge its membership. Persons interested can apply to the Secretary, Mr. Richard Hodgson, of No. 5 Boylston Place, Boston, Mass.

—Prof. White's paper in the 'Harvard Studies in Classical Philology,' which has been printed separately in pamphlet form, has a particular interest, since it discusses in a very careful manner the question of the stage in Aristophanes—that is to say, the literary evidence of the plays themselves with regard to Dr. Dörpfeld's theory repeatedly referred to in this journal, and set forth once more by Mr. White himself in his recent communication on the Theatre at Megalopolis. His investigation issues in the conclusion that "the Comedies of Aristophanes could not have been performed on the stage of Vitruvius"; he adds the positive suggestion that the Comedies can be "set" with great ease on the supposition that there was no barrier of a raised stage between the actors and the chorus, and this in itself furnishes a strong argument in favor of the theory. There is a great deal of "stage business" in the Comedies, and Aristophanes is ingenious and fertile in devising farcical situations in which both actors and chorus take part and mingle apparently on the same level. More than a score of such situations occur, in eleven of which, on the old theory, the chorus are on the stage, while in the remainder the actors are in the orchestra. If we read the plays without prepossession in favor of a stage, these situations are easily conceived and easily "set"; they are often much more telling. If we assume the existence of a stage, we are sometimes obliged to explain away the obvious sense of the poet's language, and we are left in perplexity as to what was the exact nature of the action. This perplexity was felt in one case even by the Greek scholiast on "The Frogs." The situation is this: Dionysus, wandering in Hades, is greatly alarmed by his attendant's highly imaginative description of a hobgoblin, and in his fright appeals to his own priest to preserve him. Now the priest of Dionysus sat in the centre of the front row of spectators, and the scholiast asks: "How could the actor go round from the stage and hide himself behind the priest? It appears that the actors were not on the stage, but in the orchestra." This is a very interesting concession made to the apparent necessities of the action by an ancient commentator, who nevertheless believed that Aristophanes used an elevated stage. There are three similar passages, in one of which the actor flings his cloak among the spectators, in another he throws barley-corn to them, in the last he conducts a young woman, Theoria, among the front seats, praises her charms, which are very freely displayed, and palms her off on an official of the Senate, the Prytanis, who had the honor, with his colleagues, of a reserved seat near the circle of the orchestra. "Do you see," says the actor, "how eagerly the Prytanis took her from me?" Now, a pantomime of this piece of buffoonery at a distance of sixty feet from the functionary would certainly seem very flat and pointless. In all these cases the language implies that the action did take place as described.

—Various other situations are highly significant. Aristophanes had a fancy for closing

his plays with a procession in which the actors and the chorus join. In several instances he makes a choral dance go on just in front of the scenery. If this took place on a stage, we should have twenty-four persons dancing on a platform six feet wide, for that is all we have left of the stage of Epidaurus after allowance is made for the "distegia." In the "Acharnians," we have from thirty to fifty "supernumeraries" on the stage, and benches must have been provided for half the number. There is great difficulty in "setting" such a scene on a stage so narrow; and we have no warrant for reducing the number of policemen, assemblymen, ambassadors, and so on to a mere representative handful—a Pyramus and Thisbe equivalent—as is done by Mr. Haigh and others. In the "Peace" and the "Lysistrata" we have a nearly equal number on the stage, and some very lively action going on, if we are to judge by the conversation. There is no reason, Prof. White argues, why we should not take this language literally, and why the performance should not have been carried out in a "realistic" manner, except the necessities imposed by the assumption of a high and narrow stage. In more than a score of instances, then, the chorus and the actors are on the same level, and Aristophanes, who is very careful in motiving his situations, gives no hint that there has been a change of level. This must be admitted by those who maintain that in five passages the poet does indicate a change of level in the words "ascend" and "descend," used of actors (*ἀναβαίνειν* and *καταβαίνειν*). As to these crucial passages, Prof. White maintains that the words are here used as technical theatrical terms, surviving from the time of Thespis and the *ἴδης*, or table, on which his single actor stood, and that in the time of Aristophanes these old-fashioned terms were retained with comic effect, simply in the sense of entrance and exit, without implying change of level. He quotes in defense of this interpretation the criticism of one scholiast on another in the "Knights," line 149. The words "ascend" and "descend," it should be noted, are used in these passages only of actors, never of the chorus. More than a dozen other words used in the Comedies of entrance and exit imply no change of level. The details of the facts and arguments are naturally more striking and impressive than this brief summary. Mr. White recognizes, accordingly, three periods in the history of the Greek stage: "The earliest time, when the actor stood on the *ἴδης*; the classical time, when he stood on a level with the orchestra, in front of the proscenium; the Macedonian epoch, when, with the loss of the chorus and the general vitiation of the public taste, he did doubtless stand upon it [i. e., the proscenium transformed into a stage]." Of this second period the scholiast had no knowledge; neither, apparently, did Vitruvius the architect, nor Pollux, the antiquarian.

—Some attention having been aroused by the absurd exploit of Mr. Calderon in painting St. Elizabeth of Hungary naked before an altar, in presence of Conrad of Marburg and some friars, our readers may possibly feel an interest in the text which Mr. Calderon has thus rendered so literally. It occurs in Theodoric of Thuringia's "Life of St. Elizabeth," Lib. vi, cap. i, and runs as follows:

"Die autem paraceve dum pro mysterio et memoria Salvatoris pro nobis nudi nuda cruce pendentes altaria nuda apparent, Magistro Conrado et quibusdam de predictis fratribus praesentibus, in quadam capilla ponens super nudum altare manus sacras, voluntati propria, parentibus, liberis, et cognatis, omnibusque hu-

jusmodi pompis renunciavit, imitatrix Christi, et omnino se exuit et nudavit, ut et nuda et nudum paupertatis et charitatis gressibus sequeretur."

In view of the applause with which the picture was greeted, and its purchase by the Chantrey Fund as a worthy representative of British art, it is easy to understand the indignation in Catholic circles at so indecent a travesty, which outrages all the traditions of saintly modesty. It is not so easy to comprehend how any artist should be so utterly lacking in imagination and in a sense of fitness as to misconstrue the evident meaning of the chronicler.

—The collection of the folk-tales of England and Ireland has been so long neglected that it is doubtful whether in the former country there is much left to gather, and the amount of material which has undoubtedly perished in Ireland must be very great. We have recently reviewed Mr. Jeremiah Curtin's 'Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland,' which was a praiseworthy attempt to rescue this evanescent material, and now we have to mention briefly 'Beside the Fire: A Collection of Irish Gaelic Folk Stories,' edited, translated, and annotated by Dr. Douglas Hyde (London: David Nutt). Of the fourteen stories in the volume (there are some riddles also), seven have already been printed in the original Gaelic in the same author's 'Leabhar Sgeulaichteachta'; the rest are here given for the first time with the original text and translation. The stories have all been written down by the author himself or by some friend acquainted with Gaelic, and the names of the narrators and the locality are given with exactness, so that we have here the first really scientific collection of Irish tales. Very few of those contained in the present volume have parallels in the Scottish Gaelic tales published by Campbell and MacInnes; but this is due to the collector, who purposely chose tales which were dissimilar, and who says, "As a general rule, the main body of tales in Ireland and Scotland bear a very close relation to each other." Not many of the stories in Hyde have European parallels. The following are the most noteworthy: p. 3, "The Tailor and the Three Beasts," compare Grimm No. 20, "The Valiant Little Tailor," and Dasant, p. 36, "Boots Who Ate a Match with the Troll"; p. 19, "The King of Ireland's Son" is a mixture of Grimm No. 71, "How Six Men Got On in the World," and the theme of "The Thankful Dead"; p. 129, "The Well of D'Yerree-in-Dowan," compare Curtin, p. 93, "The King of Erin," etc., which has a parallel in Grimm No. 97, "The Water of Life"; and p. 148, "Neil O'Carree," which is composed of the theme of "The Thankful Dead" and the story first found in the 'Cento Novele Antiche' ('Il Novellino'), and best known by the version in Grimm No. 81, "Brother Lustig." The collector has written an interesting preface, in which he discusses the relation between the folk-literature of Ireland and Scotland, and indulges in some mournful reflections upon the neglect with which the language and literature of Ireland have been treated. Mr. Alfred Nutt has written a valuable postscript to the preface, and appended a few notes to the various stories. Altogether, Dr. Hyde's volume is a valuable and welcome contribution to folk-lore, and we sincerely trust it will lead to a collection of Irish popular tales worthy to stand by the side of Campbell's priceless work.

FREEMAN'S HISTORY OF SICILY.

The History of Sicily from the Earliest Times. By Edward A. Freeman. Volume

I. The Native Nations: The Phoenician and Greek Settlements. Vol. II. From the Beginning of Greek Settlement to the Beginning of Athenian Intervention. Pp. xxxvi, 609; xx, 583. With maps. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891.

In the broadest retrospect, European history chronicles a tremendous conflict between the Aryan and the Semitic races. Compared with this conflict, which lasted more than five-and-twenty centuries, the local struggles among the Greek, Italian, and Teutonic tribes seem almost insignificant. The final question to be decided was, from the dawn of history, not which Aryan people should dominate Europe, but whether Europe itself should not fall under Asiatic sway and be deprived of even the possibility of developing an Aryan civilization. We do not sufficiently realize how near, in at least two crises, the Asiatic came to victory: had he won at Marathon, Salamis, and Himera, the course of ancient history would have been completely changed; had he won at Tours, there might have been no Frankish Empire, with feudalism and the other influences it bequeathed to modern times. In the first great onslaught Hellas was the champion of Europe; she defeated Darius and Xerxes on her own soil, and her Sicilian colonists defeated the Carthaginians—who were Semitic colonists in Africa—at Himera. Then followed the long duel between Rome and Carthage for the supremacy of the world. Triumphant Rome, blotting out her rival, made Africa and the East her tributaries, and it seemed as if the question were settled for ever—as if the Aryan were not only securely established in Europe, but also master of the men of Canaan. But when the Roman Empire crumbled, another Semitic wave poured westward; and, with wonderful rapidity, the Arabs swept along the southern coast of the Mediterranean, seized upon Sicily and Spain, and threatened to inundate all western Europe until they were checked by Charles Martel. Then Europe took the offensive, recovered Sicily, and, in the desultory and futile crusades, strove to regain the African seaboard and western Asia. Finally, just as the Arab power declined, Asia sent forth another brood of conquerors, the Turks, who made vassals of the Saracens, and, establishing themselves in the Byzantine capital on the Bosphorus, overran southeastern Europe and menaced Italy and Germany. Only two hundred years have passed since the followers of Othman encamped under the walls of Vienna; and since their defeat there, Europe has inch by inch driven them back, until but a fragment of their western empire remains to them. But the very presence of the Sultan at Constantinople is a reminder that the "eternal Eastern question" which perplexed the statesmen of young Hellas, is still unsettled. Asia no longer threatens to enslave Europe; but she has left a thorn in the side of Europe which no one dares to withdraw.

In this immemorial struggle between the East and the West, Sicily has played an important, often a most important, part. Her position as the stepping-stone between Africa and Europe, and as the wedge dividing the Mediterranean into two almost separate seas, predestined her to be the meeting-place and battle-field of the races. Though never a homogeneous nation herself, she has been involved in the affairs of many nations. Not only was she the pivot on which the struggle between Rome and Carthage turned, but also she has been the abode of Goth and Saracen, of Norman, German, and Spaniard; she has been the spoil of the House of Anjou and the

House of Bourbon, and, finally, under the House of Savoy, she has been united to Italy. She is the most cosmopolitan of lands: on her soil all peoples have mingled to form a composite people in which Italian traits now predominate, mixed with traits inherited from Greek or Arab ancestors. No other island except Britain has had so eventful a history; but Sicily had already lived two lives, in the very centre of the world's conflicts, before Britain had a life that interested the world at all. Considering, therefore, the range and variety of Sicily's experience, it may seem strange that no one has hitherto written a first-rate history of Sicily. The reason, however, is obvious: the undertaking is almost too vast, requiring as it does a knowledge not only of what happened in the island itself during twenty-five centuries, but also of universal history throughout all that time. A complete narrative would include not only the deeds of Hiero and Hannibal, of Roger, Frederick II., and Garibaldi, but also a broad statement of the general currents of human progress so far as these influenced, or were influenced by, the fortunes of Sicily.

To supply this want has been for years the ambition of Prof. Freeman, and we have at last the first two volumes of his work, which he hopes to bring down to the time of Frederick II. He originally proposed to treat of Sicilian history during the Norman period, but in studying his material he became convinced that, in order to make medieval Sicily intelligible, he must go back to the beginning; he felt that the real significance of the island's career comes from the part she played in that inextinct conflict between Europe and Asia to which we have briefly referred; and so, undaunted by the magnitude of the task, he set himself to write the history of Sicily from the earliest times, when fragmentary records disappear in myths and legends. The key to his treatment is found in this sentence, which he quotes from Grote (vol. v, p. 277):

"We are here introduced to the first known instance of that series of contests between the Phoenicians and Greeks of Sicily which, like the struggle between the Saracens and the Normans in the eleventh and twelfth centuries after the Christian era, were destined to determine whether the island should be a part of Africa or a part of Europe—and which were only terminated, after the lapse of three centuries, by the absorption of both into the vast bosom of Rome."

The scale on which Mr. Freeman works may be inferred from the fact that these first two volumes (of nearly 1,200 octavo pages) bring his narrative down only to the year B. C. 433; yet the authentic history of Sicily cannot be said to begin before the seventh century, and then it can be gathered only in scraps. Before the seventh century, and long afterwards, conjectures and myths are our only guides, to be confirmed by what hints archaeology and philology can give. Of the aboriginal inhabitants of the island we know nothing; the first distinct tribes were the Sikans, who may have come from the Iberian peninsula; the Sikels, who seem to have been related to an early Italian people; and the Elymians, about whose origin even so expert a guesser as Mr. Freeman offers no plausible suggestion. Some time later than the eleventh century the Phoenicians made settlements on the northwestern shores of the island, and three of these settlements—Panormos, Motya, and Eryx—grew to be prosperous towns, which, in the seventh century, looked to Carthage, the great Phoenician power in Africa, for protection. In B. C. 735, the first Greek settlement was planted at Naxos by men of Chalcis, and in the following

year, Corinthians founded Syracuse. Thenceforward, for more than two hundred years, the work of Greek colonization went on.

It was about B. C. 580 that the first recorded struggle between the Greeks and Phoenicians occurred, when Pentathlos led a body of Rhodians and Cnidians to settle on the western coast, and they were driven away by the Phoenicians. But not till a century later did the irrepressible conflict between the races come to a crisis. Then, when Xerxes massed all the power of Asia to crush Hellas, the Carthaginians sent their armies to aid their Phoenician brothers in overwhelming the sons of Hellas in Sicily. At Himera the contest was fought; the Punic host was routed, and Greek Sicily had a respite from barbarian aggressions during nearly three generations. During this interval, Syracuse and Acragas rose to the meridian of luxury and power, and several other cities fell but a little behind them. The early tyrants, Gelon and Hiero at Syracuse, and Theron at Acragas, enjoyed only a brief ascendancy; yet it was to them, and to their imitators elsewhere, that the Greek cities of Sicily owed the erection of many of those monuments whose ruins now attest the power and culture of that period. From B. C. 472 to B. C. 433, Sicily was free alike from native oppression and foreign interference, although would-be despots harassed her from time to time and there was more than one quarrel between city and city. By far the most interesting episode during these forty years was the unsuccessful attempt of Ducetius, a Sikel, to set up a Sikel kingdom. After him, the Hellenization of his tribe went on so rapidly that the Sikels themselves became one in interests and fortune with their Hellenic conquerors. Mr. Freeman's second volume ends, it will be seen, on the eve of the outbreak of the Peloponnesian war, the most dramatic and important of whose campaigns was to be waged in Sicily.

This first epoch is illustrated by the career of a few conspicuous men—of the tyrants above mentioned, of Phalaris and Empedocles, of Dorieus, Hippocrates, and Anaxilas—and Mr. Freeman has done well, in the absence of larger information about the people, to dilate upon these. The chief sources from which he could draw his facts, the works of Herodotus, Thucydides, and Diodorus, are often so scanty that he has also ransacked Greek poetry for every reference to early Sicilian affairs; and at least two Greek poets, Simonides and Pindar, have supplied him with material. That poetic side-lights are better than utter darkness, no one will deny; but we believe that the tendency of modern scholars is to overestimate the value for historical purposes of these poetic hints. If, in the far future, the only record that men possessed of Napoleon should be Manzoni's ode—if nothing were then known of Cromwell but Marvell's ode—historical students would doubtless attempt to reconstruct the history of Cromwell and Napoleon; but can we believe that their patchwork could contain more than those poems contain? Is it not time to be more wary of conclusions drawn from stray phrases in the classic poets—to suspect the solidity of an historic edifice based on the fragment of an ancient statue or a bit of pottery? We would not for a moment disparage the use of these and similar aids, but we would insist that their authority can be, at the most, only partial and corroborative. More than once, after the expert has restored a mutilated statue to the satisfaction of archaeologists, the missing fragments have been unearthed, and have been found to differ widely from the "restoration."

We feel the want of caution in Mr. Freeman's work, especially his first volume, where facts are few and conjectures many. Indeed, without adding the most liberal supply of conjectures, no one could stretch the account of Sicily from prehistoric times down to the middle of the fifth century B.C. through nearly 600 pages: all the facts, together with a concise statement of the legends and theories, could be adequately told in a small fraction of that space. But Mr. Freeman does not sufficiently discriminate between the functions of the historian and the functions of the archaeologist. He devotes much of his attention to the topography of the ancient towns; he describes those ruins that remain, and speculates as to the probable site of lost monuments and cities. He requires, for instance, two pages for stating that Sicily's shape is not exactly triangular, the western angle being somewhat blunted; he debates whether a town started at the foot of a hill and crept to the top, or started at the top and crept to the bottom; he dwells upon the probable changes in the harbor of Panormos. This is much as if we should find in a history of the United States a long and minute description of the Great Serpent Mound or of Dighton Rock. Temptations like these Mr. Freeman, in the case of Sicily, cannot resist. In proportion as a question is hazy, his attitude towards it is not, "What do we know about this?" but, "What can we infer?" This method causes an historical work to resemble those German editions of the classics in which five lines of text are an excuse for ten pages of comments. Let one case serve to illustrate many: less than two pages sufficed to Grote for stating all that is known about Phalaris; Mr. Freeman's discussion of Phalaris covers fourteen pages in the body of the work and an appendix of twenty pages in small type.

We lay stress on this subject because we believe that it involves the fundamental principles which should guide the historian. During the past half century there has sprung up a body of writers devoting themselves to that amiable fiction, "the science of history." They might as well pursue the science of prophecy; for if history were a science, in the strict meaning of the word, the historian would not only know absolutely all the motives and actions of men in the past, but he would also be able to foretell the future. But the most "scientific" historian in the world did not foresee on April 13, 1865, that President Lincoln would be assassinated within forty-eight hours; and who would have predicted two years ago the dismissal of Bismarck by the heady young Kaiser? The term "science," as we understand it, cannot properly be applied to human events in which the unexpected may at any moment upset all calculation. What is really meant by the "science of history" is that the historical student strives to sift evidence accurately, to state facts impartially, and to eliminate so far as he can the personal equation from his results; and he has been wonderfully assisted by the great advance made by the true sciences in recent times. A man may, however, succeed in all these endeavors without being a great historian. Mere accuracy and ability to heap up facts do not suffice; there must accompany these qualities imagination—the power to see through facts to causes—and the artist's power of classification and expression. A history is worth, at the last analysis, only as much as the historian's personality; it is not only a record, but a commentary; and whereas to a small man the most stupendous episodes seem small, to the great mind the smallest event is

mighty significant. Long before the "science of history" was dreamt of, Thucydides wrote a history, and Tacitus another, which all the "scientific" historians in the world to-day would try in vain to equal. One characteristic of this modern school is to overburden their pages with erudition; another is the absence of imagination, of vividness, of charm. To the average "scientific historian" the past is a vast cemetery whence he abducts cadavers for dissection.

How far Mr. Freeman's adherence to the scientific method of writing—it would be more appropriate to say of accumulating—history has led him to cumber his work with matters which only indirectly bear upon it, we have already hinted. That he sees clearly the great currents of human progress is as evident as that he has not the gift of describing them in a master's fashion. He labors so hard to be precise that he has too little charm. He carries antithesis and repetition beyond all bounds. If such a sentence as the following seems rugged, "The gods were the gods of the netherworld, but their very nature as gods of the netherworld made them also gods of the high places" (i, 98), what shall we call this passage?

"The English settlement in Britain, with all that it was slowly to lead to in after ages, was, at the time, an advance in civilization. In truth, as an advance of heathen destroyers, it was eminently the opposite. But the advance of the Greeks over the Sikels was in every way the advance of the higher over the lower man. The English advance in America was so far more strongly. For the advance of the Greeks against the Sikels was after all only the advance of European against European; it was the advance of kinsmen to whom the lamp had been first handed against kinsmen who had lagged behind them in the race" (i, 319-20).

Such a style might be excusable in a textbook of chemistry, or in the composition of a child who had not yet been taught the use of pronouns; but in an historical work which is to be read as literature, how can we excuse it? Mr. Freeman has so long been known as a spelling-reformer that it is hardly worth while to quarrel with him on that score now, but we may fairly ask that he be consistent. On one page we find *Aeschylus* and *Sophoklēs*, on others, *Aristotle* and *Sokratis*; why this discrimination? Or, if we are suffered to write *Macedonia*, why are we forced to write *Epeirost*? But into the mysteries of classical spelling-reform we will not venture to intrude. The use of *æra*, *phænomena*, *præ-historic*, etc., is a reversion to antiquated forms which, being unnecessary, seems pedantic.

It will be observed that our adverse criticism falls in the main on the method which Mr. Freeman has pursued—a method which, we believe, can never produce an historical work of the highest order. But we recognize and applaud the diligence with which he has gathered his materials, the breadth of his erudition, the patience with which he has examined every line and literally turned every stone that bore an allusion to his subject. And if the reader be disappointed because all this industry and learning have not created a vivid, terse, and charming history, he will nevertheless acknowledge that there is scattered up and down these two volumes, as in an encyclopædia, a vast deal of information concerning all things Sicilian as late as B.C. 433. And in the fifty-six appendices the specialist will find a further discussion of those moot questions in archaeology and classical lore which to specialists are of more interest than the lives and deeds of men. It is to be hoped that, in the succeeding volumes, Mr. Freeman,

having reached a period concerning which contemporary historians have left ample records, will devote himself to the swift and strong narration of events, leaving the critical exegesis of texts and the putting forward of conjectures to German students who excel therein.

A word should be said in praise of the make-up of these volumes. Each has a full table of contents, marginal rubrics, maps, and an index. The paper and press-work are excellent. It is a pity, therefore, that each volume should have several pages of corrections and additions, which might have been distributed in their proper places in the text. We have marked a goodly number of misprints not included in the list of errata, but we have no space to set them down here.

STRATMANN'S MIDDLE ENGLISH DICTIONARY.

A Middle English Dictionary. By Francis Henry Stratmann. New edition, rearranged, revised, and enlarged by Henry Bradley. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

The appearance of a Middle English Dictionary, though but a new edition, is by no means insignificant. No period in our language history is more important for an understanding of present English, and none has been so lacking in those proper aids to study, grammars and dictionaries. The grammar of Middle English is yet to be written, the Chaucer Grammar of Ten Brink, invaluable as it is for the great part of the fourteenth century, being still inadequate for all periods, and for other dialects than the Midland. In the matter of dictionaries, the case has been worse. The great dictionary of Mätzner has not yet reached the middle of the alphabet. Stratmann's dictionary, last issued with supplement in 1881, left much to be desired, as must have been the case with the first work in so wide a field. Appreciating this, Dr. Stratmann had nearly completed a revision of his work in 1884, when his death occurred. It is this corrected edition which is now issued by the Clarendon Press, under the editorship of Henry Bradley.

The first question suggested on the issue in England of a new work connected with English philology, is, "How far does it take account of the results of philological research in Germany?" For it is a lamentable fact that in England not only have German methods been sneered at, but the indubitable results of the most painstaking and trustworthy investigation have often been wholly disregarded. It is a pleasure to note, therefore, that, in the book before us, British prejudice has not prevented using the latest work of German scholars, and largely on this account the new volume will be most important to the student of Middle English.

Some of the points of superiority over former editions of Stratmann are indicated in the preface. They are, a more exact definition of words, Stratmann having paid little attention to this; a strict alphabetical arrangement, except for one or two modifications easily understood; the marking of vowel quantity to a much greater extent than hitherto attempted; the revision of etymologies, and the addition of many words, especially those of Romance origin, so largely omitted by Stratmann. Even as to the unremedied defects of the former book, the editor disarms criticism by frankly acknowledging the advantage of a different course in many cases. Here may be

placed the failure to separate all doublets resulting from adoption of a word through two channels, as English *chase* and *catch*, *chate* and *cattle*, *desk* and *dish*; the verification of all references and their insertion in manuscript spelling; the indication of Middle English open and close *e*, *o*, both long and short, and the separation of palatal *g* from the guttural and dental-palatal consonants.

The marking of Middle English quantity is not easy, but the attempt is to be heartily commended. Mr. Bradley's plan of marking in a different way the new long vowels, while perhaps not objectionable, is hardly necessary, since the lengthening conforms to fairly definite rules well known to students of the language, and the addition of the Old English word in most cases of Germanic origin shows clearly enough the original quantity. Some objections might be made to Bradley's statement of the laws of lengthening, since it is at variance in several particulars with that laid down by Ten Brink in his Chaucer Grammar, and that given by Kluge in the recently issued 'Grundriss der Germanischen Philologie.' Moreover, full account does not seem to have been taken of the later development of the language, as throwing light on Middle English quantity; for it must be assumed that vowels whose later changes are wholly normal must have had in ME., or late ME. at least, the quantity of vowels in other words of the same category. To illustrate, the *i* of *climben* should be long, both because of the general rule that *i* is long in ME. before *mb*, *nd*, *ld*, and because in no other way could we account for our word *climb*. So the lengthening of *o*, open and close, before *mb* is evident from present English *comb*, *womb*, *tomb*, while in *lamb* the ME. word was long, though our word must have come from a form retaining its short *a*. Sweet even adds *dumb* to the list of words with long vowel before *mb*. Similarly, the lengthening before *r* + voiced consonant, while it may not have been universal, might better be marked in words which are distinctly separate in present English because of such lengthening. Examples are, *board*, *hoard*, *weird* (long in OE. *even*), and *beard*, the last of which is alone marked long by Bradley. Wholly unmarked are the lengthened vowels before *n* + palatal *g*, even when the modern forms show the quantity conclusively. Examples are *change*, *grange*, *strange*, *stranger*, *danger*, *manger*, *angel*—the last not from OE. *engel*, as implied by Bradley, but from the old French word. The recognized lengthenings of OE. monosyllables are usually noted, but *we* is given short, and our *thou* is marked both long and short. In some other cases there is lack of consistency. For instance, *hol* 'hollow' is short, while *col* 'coal' is long. In fact, both were long in ME., probably lengthened before the close of OE. times. So while vowels in open syllables of Germanic words are usually marked long, *beren* 'to bear' and *barin* 'to bare' among the *b*'s are not marked, although the similar word *swerien*, 'to swear,' receives its proper length. Lengthening of *e* before *nd* is not marked, though both Sweet and Kluge give examples of it; and such a word as *taste* has long *a*, while *best*, 'beast,' is unmarked. In general, the quantity of originally unstressed syllables in Romance words is not indicated, although many of them had become long, owing to shifting of stress, as early as the fourteenth century. Following Stratmann, Bradley indicates the quantity of these words only in the earliest time.

But the most striking omission is in not indicating the difference between open and close *e*, *o*, long and short, at least so far as it is

fairly evident from the later outgrowth of the speech. Mr. Bradley himself recognizes this by saying that the open *o* (long and short) "ought to have been used for Middle-English *o*, when representing an Old-English *a*" long and short. It is true such distinction would be pioneer work, like that of marking quantity, but it is to be regretted it was not begun in so good a book. Moreover, to one who looks upon language as a physiological development under determinate laws of sound-change, it is perplexing to see ranged side by side, without any indication of difference, words whose phonetic quality has been different at every successive stage of the language. For example, the separation of ME. open and close *ɛ* is by no means so difficult as it would at first seem. Both *ɛ*'s appear in modern English as *i*, with the spellings *e*, *ee*, *ie*, *ei*, *ea*. But until the eighteenth century words with *ea* were distinct from the others. A comparison with Old and Middle English shows that words spelled now with *ea* and having the *i* sound must have had open *ɛ* in ME., and that this alone can account for a distinction kept up for three centuries. The only exceptions are a few words with *ee* springing from open *ɛ* in early ME., which must as certainly have become close *ɛ* in late Middle or early modern English. It should be said that some indication of the quality of vowels is given by the editor in his retention of the early *æ* for open *ɛ*, but this should have been supplemented by the recognition of the close *ɛ* as well. The problem of marking open and close *o*, long and short, is even less difficult. Not only OE. long *ā* became ME. open long *ō*, although sometimes retaining the traditional spelling with *ā* in the earliest period, but words which show long close *ō* at present presuppose an open vowel in the ME. time. Examples are numerous, as our *stone*, *boat* from OE. *ā*, and *gold*, *hole* from OE. short open *o* by lengthening in ME. The separation is the more easy because ME. long close *ō* has regularly become long *ō*, as in *gloom*, *bloom*, *tooth*, *goose*, etc.

The palatal and guttural *g*'s should have been separated also, since the palatal quality which precedes our *g* was almost, if not quite, as distinct in ME. as it has become in later times. The separation has been made in the smaller ME. dictionary of Mayhew and Skeat, besides being usual in glossaries. Bradley's introduction of German *ü* for the umlaut of OE. *u* represents, of course, the phonetic value of the umlaut in Southern English, but not in the Midland and Northern dialects, where the umlaut of *u* was constantly represented by *i*, showing it had become unrounded.

Without seeking for errors especially, some have been noticed which show carelessness at least in giving OE. words. Under *dust* the OE. word should have a long vowel, the *u* being for original *u* + *n*. Our *fever*, ME. *feſtre*, should have long *ɛ* both in Old and Middle English, although unmarked by the editor in either case. It has been generally accepted also, that OE. *lytel*, "little," has a long vowel, as may be seen from Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch,' or the OE. grammar of Sievers. Under *rechen* the OE. forms should be *rēcan*, *reccan*, not *rēcan*, cf. Kluge under *geruhen*. After ME. *stirōp* should be given OE. *stigerōp* if one follows Kluge, or *stigrōp* as often, but not *stigrōp* with short *i*. The OE. word from which ME. *snares*, "snare, noose," is derived is *sneār*, not *sneār*, the two consonants *rh* alone accounting for the breaking *ea*. In giving OE. words there is no distinction between original *e*, and *e* the umlaut of *a*, nor is there recognition of OE. dialectic forms. It would have been comparatively easy to give West

Saxon forms in all cases, or to have indicated dialectic peculiarities.

It is not to be expected, perhaps, with our present knowledge of the subject, that all etymologies in such a work should be correct, but we are surprised to see the too common English reference of our word *silly* to OE. *selig*, ME. *seli* 'happy,' instead of to OE. *sellic* 'odd, peculiar.' The two words were distinct as late as Spenser's time at least, if they ever fell together. Similarly there is no separation of OE. *engel*, and OF. *angel*, from which alone our *angel* could have come. There is little reason also to connect *early*, ME. *ærlich*, with Icl. *ārligr*, rather than with OE. *ærlice*, notwithstanding the theory of Ten Brink that the adverbial ending *-ly* has been influenced by Icl. *-ligr*. So it is highly improbable that *trout* could have come from OF. *truite*, while it would be a natural outgrowth of OE. *trāht*. In most cases, also, the modern English phonetic equivalents are given, even when the word has changed its meaning, but sometimes these are omitted when we should expect them. Under *runien* 'to whisper' should be given English *round*, marked obsolete in our dictionaries, but used by Browning in the 'Ring and the Book' and other poems. So, too, under *gure-blōd* should be mentioned the word of similar meaning used by Shakespeare, *gore blood*, "Romeo and Juliet," iii., 2, 56. Without doubt the words are the same, the ME. *u* being (as often) for a close *o*, and in this case the word belongs under *gōre*. There seems to be a curious mistranslation of a Latin definition in one of the glosses. ME. *stert*, our *start*, is rendered 'start, movement,' where *moment* translates Latin *mōmentum* 'a movement.'

Notwithstanding these criticisms, it remains to say that we have in this volume a much better book than the original Stratmann, more exact, more complete, more useful. Its issue by the Clarendon Press is a guarantee of almost perfect typography, and, by abbreviating the references where possible, the book, with its added material, has been made no larger than the original dictionary.

The Right Hon. Arthur Macmurrough Kavanagh. Compiled by his cousin, Sarah L. Steele. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

FREQUENTERS of the streets of Dublin, visitors to the lobby of the House of Commons, between 1866 and 1880, must at one time or another have been attracted by the spectacle of a noble head and presence being carried in the arms of an attendant from carriage to door, or from lobby to a back seat. There was something wrong—the being had no limbs—yet no painful impression was given. It appeared for the moment not so much that something was wanting to him as that ordinary men were endowed with unnecessary appendages. This being was Arthur M. Kavanagh, the subject of the biography before us. We doubt whether there ever was a greater instance of a man triumphing over physical disabilities. If he had been the child of poor parents, he would doubtless have lingered out his days by the fireside or in the wards of a charitable institution. Born of one of the oldest and wealthiest Irish families, the direct descendant of Dermot Macmurrough who brought over Strongbow and his Norman knights, he was given every advantage, and, with the aid of appliances, became a fearless rider, a keen sportsman, and an enthusiastic yachtsman. He travelled Europe and India, often enduring privations that would wear down men of robust constitution. Naturally

of a religious temperament, his cheerfulness was admirable and unfailing.

Still more remarkable was the manner in which he threw himself into public affairs, local, Irish, and Imperial. For many years he stood out as perhaps the ablest of the ascendancy party in Ireland. He was considerate and humane to all around him. He believed the Irish people were essentially unfit for self-government, but that they should be well and honestly governed. As a magistrate he was wont to dispense justice and administer advice from a seat under an old oak tree near his hall door. Thus he and his should dispense justice to the masses of their fellow-countrymen. He sat in Parliament from 1866 to 1880. A Protestant, he represented a constituency in which the Catholics were to the Protestants as 8 to 1. A landlord drawing his wealth, and means for foreign travel, and keeping up his yachts and placing his children in high positions, largely from the power to screw up the rents upon tenants in proportion as they delved and saved, his constituents were those very tenants. He voted to rivet the support of the church of the minority upon that of the majority; he resisted all efforts for effecting land reform. In the elections of 1880 the people, armed with the ballot, threw off the representation of such men. This he and his biographer regarded as the basest ingratitude—as a conclusive proof of the unworthiness of the people and of their weakness in being led by interested agitators.

Mr. Gladstone's measures of land reform accomplished, it is to Kavanagh's credit that he accepted the inevitable, and recognized that the only safety for his class thenceforward lay in the widest extension of peasant proprietorship. Needless to say, he was an opponent of home rule, an ardent admirer of Mr. Balfour. Under different circumstances he might have become a prominent leader in Irish affairs; as it was, he could only be an advocate of the maintenance of the rights of a class.

The biography before us is unduly laudatory, and is often wanting in balance. It is, upon the whole, interesting, and has its value as a witness to the extent to which man can triumph over bodily failings and maintain a cheerful, healthy spirit. It is also of worth as an exposition of the ideas and the hopes of the class to which Mr. Kavanagh belonged. We are left in doubt as to whether the numerous mottoes in ancient and modern languages at the heads of the chapters indicate the learning of the subject of the memoir, or imply the erudition of the authoress.

Optical Projection: A Treatise on the Use of the Lantern in Exhibition and Scientific Demonstration. By Lewis Wright. Longmans, Green & Co. 12mo. 1891.

MR. WRIGHT'S excellent work will assuredly be warmly welcomed by teachers and lecturers, in it the subject of what may be termed illustrative projection is reduced to purely scientific principles, while its capabilities are developed and largely extended. In this country lectures are, as every one knows, very frequently and often very advantageously illustrated by optical projections upon screens, and the lantern has become a popular instrument. It is important to give it the highest degree of perfection, and this can only be done by a thorough study of the optical principles upon which its construction rests. Mr. Wright's work gives all that is, at present at least, necessary. It contains the theory and practical construction of the lantern itself; an account of the different sources of light, and of screens and accessories of all kinds. We have then accounts of apparatus necessary for scientific demonstrations and their application to Physiology, Chemistry, Sound, Spectral Analysis, Light, Heat, Magnetism, Electricity, and finally to Scientific Diagrams. The book is very full of useful details, and is eminently practical. We notice no errors of moment,

but may in correction state that the invention of the vertical lantern described on page 167 is due to Prof. J. P. Cooke of Harvard University.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alt, Florence M. *A Child of Song: Verses.* Rochester, N. Y.
 Anstey, F. *Tourmalin's Time Cheques.* D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
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 Collins, E. L. *Hadassah; or, "From Captivity to the Persian Throne."* Cassell Publishing Co. \$1.50.
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